
SOCIAL EDUCATION

CONTENTS

THE <i>New York Times</i> "TEST" ON AMERICAN HISTORY	Erling M. Hunt	195
BUILDING YOUTH MORALE IN WARTIME	Alonzo G. Grace	201
RATION STAMPS AND SALVAGE: A TENTH-GRADE PROJECT	Walter Ludwig	205
THREE GREAT DOCUMENTS	Eber Jeffery	209
THAT EVERLASTING PEACE	Boyd C. Shafer	213
TECHNOLOGY AND LIBERTY	Samuel M. Levin	216
GLOBAL GEOGRAPHY IN THE ELEMENTARY GRADES	Agnes F. Garrels	221
NOTES AND NEWS		224
PAMPHLETS AND GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS	Leonard B. Irwin	226
SIGHT AND SOUND IN SOCIAL STUDIES	William H. Hartley	228
BOOK REVIEWS		230
PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED		239

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The *New York Times* "Test" on American History

Erling M. Hunt

TWICE within a year the *New York Times* has made the teaching of American history the subject, not to say the victim, of an excursion into sensational journalism. Last June an elaborate report, complete with statistics, purported to show that colleges neglect the study of the United States. The joker in that report was the assumption that students can learn about the United States only in courses labelled "American History." Courses in "contemporary civilization," "social science," government, economics, sociology, American literature, and modern history were coolly ignored, both in the statistics and in the demand for compulsory college courses in American history. So was the fact that most pupils in elementary and secondary schools are required to survey American history three times, and that such study of the United States is supplemented by required study of geography, civics, and often of modern problems and European or world history.

The *Times* may have had a sincere interest in advancing the study of American history. But if its campaign has the effect of decreasing attention to economics, government, sociology, current issues and problems, and the history of the rest of the world, it is likely best to serve the interests of extreme nationalists and those reactionaries who prefer not to have present social and economic issues and our world relationships considered.

No one questions the value, or the indispensability, of American history. But certainly it has no monopoly on the study of the United States. American history need not be jingoistic. Nor need it neglect current issues and problems. But the kind of history which the *Times*' second venture into misleading statistics seems to advocate certainly has little connection with the living present.

IS THE *Times* TEST VALID?

THE test of freshman knowledge of American history sponsored by the *New York Times*, and reported in the issue of Sunday, April 4, is an incredibly casual instrument of measurement. Ignoring the fact that testing is a highly technical field, requiring experts such as those employed by the College Entrance Examination Board, the Cooperative Test Service, the Regents in the State of New York, and many leading universities, the *Times* used a test put together by a graduate-school professor of history, inexperienced in such testing, and a journalist with no educational experience other than some recent publicity work for the U. S. Office of Education. Some questions seem to have been taken from a Regents' test, though correlations with the results in New York State are not reported. The test is concerned exclusively with ability to remember information. Items on which students did badly included:

1. Name the thirteen original states.—Only 6 per cent answered without error. The percentage with only one or two errors (as including Maine or Vermont) is not reported.

6. "Put in their proper sequence" questions, including (1) The Boy Scout Movement, (2) First Social Settlement Houses, (3) Transcendentalism, and (4) The first Women's Colleges.—A single error throws out the entire answer in each of four such series, though dates for (3) and (4) are arbitrary, as is the *Times* "correct answer."

10. Who was President during the War of 1812?—during the Mexican War? . . .

14. What has been the traditional American policy toward China? The only "correct answer," calls for a parrot's response; "Open Door" is mere verbalism, and we have policies toward China that ante-date John Hay.

15. When was the Homestead Act passed? Before the passage of the Homestead Act what was the minimum price per acre of Federal public lands sold at auction?—The answers, 1862 and \$1.25, must be precise to be allowed. Is this information characteristic of the history that is to be drilled into the heads of young Americans? Does this take precedence over history—or "social studies"?

—concerned with vital aspects of, say, the agricultural problem in America?

21. Which was the first United States census in which railway mileage could have been reported?—The answer, given as 1840, ignores roads built before 1830.

22. Beginning with Massachusetts, name the eleven States in their geographical order from north to south.—The question does not make sense. The "correct answer," which omits Pennsylvania, reveals that the word "coastal" was left out. The question was tricky in the first place, became unintelligible when incorrectly put, and the "correct answer" is simply wrong.

Similarly wrong is the "correct answer" to the question on the location of Portland, Oregon, which is on the Willamette, not the Columbia River. The Editor of the *Times* in defending the "correct answer" against a Brooklyn College freshman's protests, declares it to be right since the Willamette is a tributary of the Columbia—which would seem to put Cincinnati on the Mississippi!

Other items call for naming the home States of Thomas Hart Benton, James K. Polk, and Mark Hanna, and for indicating what Jay Cooke, Carl Schurz, James J. Hill, Nicholas Biddle, and Alexander H. Stephens were "principally famous as." No doubt these names belong in the textbooks, and young Americans should hear of them. But is effective teaching to be judged by the ability even of college freshmen to identify them? Are they more important than study of the history and present status of agriculture, industry, labor, the role of government in modern life, programs of social security, and our changing relations to the rest of the world?

THE chronological distribution of the questions calls for attention. Excluding seventeen geography items and eight men currently conspicuous in American affairs, a total of 101 answers is called for.¹ Of these, one relates to the colonial period (Roger Williams). Sixty-three relate to the period from 1787 through 1865. Thirty relate to the period 1866 through 1900 (ten persons lived on into the twentieth century). But only five items are specifically concerned with the period since 1900, though six others might be answered in terms of this later period if the students so chose. Two items, on areas purchased, can be answered within any of the three periods.

Is this extraordinary lack of balance further evidence of the haste and carelessness with which the test was constructed, or does it reflect a conviction that recent history is unimportant, or

¹Thirteen items, including two entire questions, were left out of the test as printed in the *Times*. The following figures are based on the latter version.

should not be taught? Why include such items as have been cited but neglect the past forty years except for an item on McKinley's assassination, two items on Theodore Roosevelt, one on the Boy Scouts, and one on Woodrow Wilson—and the eight current figures?

Was the grading more carefully done than was the construction of the test? The test and system of scoring are so set up that mere clerical grading, implied by the sharpness of the "correct answers," yields the worst possible results. It appears, further, that only thirty minutes was allowed for the test, though as given to freshmen it called for some 139 responses and a great deal of writing.

A further example of the amateurish nature of the test is found in its irresponsible administration. The sampling of colleges may be good, though it is interesting that Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Cornell, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Stanford, and California are among the institutions not included. How were the 7000 students selected? What controls were set up over the administration of the test? Why should students take it seriously, or put effort into so meaningless an exercise? The *Times* itself observes that "it is obvious that some of the students were not serious in answering the questions." How many were not? And what are the facts on the *Harvard Crimson's* contention that the answers are a hoax and a farce, and the comment of Dean Henry W. Holmes of Harvard, quoted in the *Times*, "that there 'was poor motivation for serious taking of a test. In fact, no one would take it seriously unless he took everything seriously.'"

Experts in testing do not open themselves to such questions and charges. The instructions read:

The object of the examination is to determine in a general way the class's knowledge of American history. No effort will be made to identify individual papers. Your academic standing will not be in the slightest affected by the results of this quiz.

Is this adequate motivation? If the *New York Times* was seriously interested in finding out what information about American history college freshmen retain, and seriously interested in a constructive effort to improve American history teaching, it needed the services of experts. Amateurish questions, dubious grading, and irresponsible administration certainly contributed much to the sensational nature of the findings.

THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS

THE *Times* finds that "college freshmen throughout the country reveal a striking ignorance of even the most elementary aspects of United States history, and know almost nothing

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about many important phases of this country's growth and development." Ignorance of facts is not news to those familiar with the dozens of testing programs that have been carried on in recent years. That ignorance has been repeatedly demonstrated not only for American history but for every other field tested. (See, for example, the 1938 Bulletin of the Carnegie Endowment for the Advancement of Teaching, prepared by William S. Learned and Ben D. Wood, on *The Student and His Knowledge*, in Pennsylvania. The Bulletin indicates how a competent study should be made, and includes some constructive suggestions as well as carefully substantiated findings.)

It may also be true that freshmen "know almost nothing about many important phases of their country's growth and development," though the *Times* test can not establish that conclusion; it tests only recall of miscellaneous items of information, not knowledge of American growth and development. The findings of reliable tests, administered at all grade levels, have, however, repeatedly and consistently demonstrated the need for better teaching of movements, institutions, and related understandings, as well as of individual facts.

Is, then, American history neglected in the schools? By no means. It dominates, as has been said, the social studies program in the elementary, the junior high (or grammar) grades, and it is universally required for graduation from public high schools.² Moreover the content is history—"chronological" history, to be redundant—covering just the sort of data the *Times* has tested, studied from texts written by many of our best known historians. Then why the poor results?

1. The courses are overcrowded with detail. Trying to teach too much results in teaching very little.

2. The courses at successive levels are repetitious, though they need not be. The history becomes dull, unstimulating, and the quality of learning suffers.

3. There is too much textbook teaching—reading, reciting, testing. The interest which promotes good learning is killed. Too many pupils acquire a hearty, and a most disturbing, dislike of history, of the names, dates, places, which are often all that they encounter in their courses.

4. Teachers of history, many of whom have

² See the statement reporting the responses to Commissioner J. W. Studebaker's inquiry addressed to the State departments of education, reprinted on page 240 of this issue.

been prepared for other fields, lack sufficient command of the subject to make it vital and stimulating. Teachers who are overworked and underpaid, even if well prepared, fail to keep up with the field and become "textbook teachers."

5. The school population now includes many pupils of low academic ability. Many read badly, and some can not be taught to read well. They need materials—including pictures and motion pictures—and teaching methods adapted to their abilities. Failure to recognize and adjust to individual differences results in failure to learn. High-ability pupils are left to drift, unstimulated. Low-ability pupils are left untaught. And the needs of "average" students are often neglected as teachers try to "cover the ground" and "get through the text" before the end of the year.

THE SOCIAL STUDIES MOVEMENT

THE *Times* has failed to point out that the improvement of history teaching has been a major concern of historians and educators for more than half a century. Through a long series of reports by distinguished committees, the American Historical Association has, since 1896, helped to establish three cycles of American history in the schools, and has helped to adapt the school program to changing needs and changing scholarship. More than thirty years ago the National Education Association appointed a committee which, while reinforcing the dominant position of American history in the civic-education program of junior and senior high schools, supplemented that history with courses in community and vocational civics, in problems of American democracy, and in world history, giving to the entire group of subjects the name "social studies." Fifteen years ago the Carnegie Corporation granted a quarter of a million dollars to the American Historical Association for an Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools. The Commission on the Social Studies included:

Frank W. Ballou, Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D.C.; Charles A. Beard, historian and political scientist; Isaiah Bowman, then of the American Geographical Society; Ada Comstock, President of Radcliffe College; George S. Counts, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University; Avery Craven, Professor of History, University of Chicago; Edmund E. Day, then of the Rockefeller Foundation; Guy Stanton Ford, then Dean and Professor of History in the University of Minnesota; Carlton J. H. Hayes, Professor of History, Columbia University; Ernest Horn, Professor of Education, University of Iowa; Henry Johnson, Professor of History, Teachers College, Columbia University; A. C. Krey, Professor of History, University of Minnesota; L. C. Marshall,

economist and sociologist, formerly of the University of Chicago; Charles E. Merriam, Professor of Political Science, University of Chicago; Jesse H. Newlon, Professor of Education and Director of the Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University; and Jesse F. Steiner, Professor of Sociology, University of Washington.

This Commission analyzed the purposes and responsibilities of social studies instruction in American schools, with attention to the requirements of scholarship, the changing needs of our democratic society, and the nature and limitations of the teaching and learning process.

Its Report, published in seventeen volumes, makes clear that the study of American society is the dominant concern of social studies teaching, with American history necessarily playing its important role, though supplemented by the other social studies—geography, civics, economics, current affairs, European backgrounds, and modern world relationships. The philosophy and general recommendations of the Commission have been generally accepted by leaders in the social studies field and by other educators.

This Report, together with parallel efforts of the National Council for the Social Studies and other professional organizations, has tried to meet changing needs. The high school population has increased since 1900 from about 700,000 to over 6,000,000. High schools, once mainly concerned with the preparation of able students for college, have now become schools for all youth—including those who learn from the printed page only with great difficulty, including those from underprivileged homes and who need personal guidance as well as knowledge, and including those who need "practical" vocational and "practical" citizenship experience as well as information. Meanwhile society has changed. Industrialization and resulting economic and social problems; the changing role of government and the menace of fascism; the changing relation of the United States to the rest of the world; new problems of youth as employment and adult responsibilities have been postponed, as home discipline has been relaxed, and as the automobile, the movies, and the radio have changed habits and attitudes—all these have called for changes in education.

These changes, and the effort to face them, have complicated the teaching of history, but have by no means lessened attention to it. On the contrary, a second and third cycle of American history have been experienced by literally millions of boys and girls who, thirty or more years ago, would have dropped out of school with not more than a first cycle. And, again, the history has been supplemented with more attention

to the "other social studies"—civics, Problems of American Democracy, current events, and often some European history. *These social studies do not replace, or reduce, American history.* They ought to make it more intelligible.

Professional historians have taken the lead, in school textbooks as well as in committee reports, in modifying the kind of history taught. The authors of texts used throughout the country include Charles A. and Mary R. Beard, and James Truslow Adams; David S. Muzzey, Harry J. Carman, and Henry S. Commager of Columbia; Harold U. Faulkner of Smith; Ralph H. Gabriel of Yale; Nelson P. Mead of the College of the City of New York; Roy F. Nichols of the University of Pennsylvania; Ralph V. Harlow of Syracuse; Eugene C. Barker and Walter P. Webb of Texas; Ellis M. Coulter of Georgia; Henry E. Bourne and the late E. J. Benton of Western Reserve; Frederic L. Paxson of California; Marcus W. Jernegan and the late William E. Dodd of Chicago; and the late John H. Latané of Johns Hopkins, Charles R. Lingley of Dartmouth, Willis M. West of Minnesota, and Carl R. Fish of Wisconsin.

The texts written by these authorities, and many others, are "straight American history." They give less attention to the colonial period than was once customary. They include much social, economic, and cultural history. Some of them are developed, in part, around topics. But they include names, places, dates, and events, and they are chronologically organized. They represent increasingly competent efforts to make children and youth aware of what America has been and has come to be. They, and their continued sale and use, refute charges, if refutation is needed, that American history has disappeared from the schools, or that the schools are neglecting American history.

WHO IS FRASER?

WHY, then, the charges, advanced by Allan Nevins and currently by Hugh Russell Fraser, and repeatedly played up in the *New York Times* during the past year, that nowadays "a little American history is interjected into a course in 'social studies,' confusedly and halfheartedly" (Nevins), and that "'social studies extremists' [are] responsible for the present appalling neglect of American history in the high schools and elementary schools of the nation" (Fraser). Professor Nevins' lack of knowledge of school offerings and requirements, and his inaccurate and incomplete use of readily available statistics and other data, were dealt with in this

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journal last October and December.³ The *Times*, in its articles on its recent test and in its editorial of April 4, has abandoned Nevins' claim that American history is not taught, and swung to the view, presented in *Social Education* last fall, that, to quote the *Times*, "our high schools need better teaching in that subject."

But who is Fraser? The *Times* identified him on April 5 as "an official of the Office of Education," and on April 11 as an "information officer" in the Office of Education. He has been a newspaper man, not an educator; recently he has been employed to prepare newspaper releases for the Office of Education. He attended a private preparatory school before entering newspaper work at the age of eighteen. He is author of a book on the political history of the 1830's and 1840's. He has never taught or made a firsthand study of schools or history teaching. Nevins, according to *PM*, describes Fraser as "a crusader with a grim determination." According to statements quoted from Fraser by *PM* on April 7, Fraser organized his "Committee on American History" after the *Times* published its survey of college requirements and enrollments last June. "I can only say that for 16 years before the *Times* came out with its story, I was boiling about the way the teaching of history was being neglected in the colleges. I was boiling because I felt the situation was hopeless." At Nevins' suggestion, according to *PM*, Fraser approached Mrs. Sulzberger, daughter of the late Adolph Ochs, publisher of the *Times*, and wife of the present publisher; she, "though interested in the work of the Committee, is not a member."

Who are the members of the Committee? Fraser is chairman. Says *PM*: "Fraser says he is the 'mouthpiece' for the Committee on American History. He 'estimates' the membership at about 45 people in various walks of life. Most of the members, he said, live in Washington." The letterhead of the Committee, which uses only Fraser's home address, gives no names. Nevins first told *PM* that he was not a member; then informed that Fraser had said he was a member, he is reported as saying: "Well, if he says I am, I am." On April 11 the *Times* described the Committee as "an organization composed of prominent historians"—but named none. Fraser told *PM* that he finances the Committee: "It cost me about \$1000 of my own money." *PM* reports

Fraser's claim that he prepared the resolution presented to the Senate by Senator Guffey, and conferred with other Senators prior to the publication of the *Times* report. He described some of his activities last December in a letter protesting because, among other things, he thought the Editor of *Social Education* had referred to him as a reactionary. He wrote, on his Committee letterhead:

Usually I am considered a wild-eyed radical. I wrote the first series of nationally syndicated articles on the plight of the Southern sharecropper. I write a column for the *Progressive*. One of the largest newspapers in Washington considered running a column by me but finally decided I was too much of a damned Socialist, to the left of the New Deal! Assuredly, my friends Claude Pepper, Bob La Follette and Bill Lemke will be delighted by your reference! . . .

Fraser identifies "social studies" with efforts to correlate, fuse, or integrate history with other fields. There have been some such efforts, but they have affected very few schools. They have not reduced attention to American history in junior or senior high schools; the Rugg texts, for junior high school, include three volumes on American history, each chronologically organized. Junior high school civics and senior high school problems of American democracy, which do draw on several fields and which are usually not chronologically organized, supplement but do not displace, American history. The overwhelming majority of elementary schools retain "straight history"; in those others where "new themes" such as the story of food, clothing, housing, transportation, and the migrations of peoples are studied, sometimes prior to fifth- and sixth-grade American history, the content certainly includes much history.

Fraser has consistently ignored the fact that "social studies," as generally used since 1916, is the name for a group of subjects, the chief of which, at three levels, is American history, chronologically presented. He has now specifically charged neglect of American history in the Milne School, Albany, New York; the Wisconsin High School, University of Wisconsin; the Eugene, Oregon, Public Schools; and the Denver Public Schools. Responsible authorities in the first three demonstrated the inaccuracy and irresponsibility of his charges in statements published in *Social Education* last December. The Superintendent of Public Schools in Denver, in a statement published in the *Times* on April 6, called Fraser's charge "completely erroneous," adding: "It is difficult to believe that Mr. Fraser is so uninformed as not to know that the term 'social studies' is used to designate an area of subject

³ Nevins' charge of neglect of American history is repeated in an article in the *New York Times Magazine* for April 18, 1943. He again misinterprets Office of Education figures and neglects other reliable data to which attention has been called in this journal.

matter, chief of which are history and geography, just as mathematics includes algebra, geometry, and so forth. . . . [At Denver] history, geography, civics, and other branches of 'social science' have, during all these years remained basic. . . ." Fraser, though apparently possessing no firsthand knowledge, has reiterated his irresponsible charges in all four cases.

The *Washington Times-Herald* of April 5 reports an attack by Fraser on the American Historical Association for failing to fight the social studies movement. In his letter of resignation from his position in the Office of Education, published in the *Times* on April 11, he attacks the Office on similar grounds and denounces the National Council for the Social Studies. In all truth, "a crusader with a grim determination"!

Why does the *New York Times* take the educational views of Fraser, *alias* the Committee on American History, seriously? Why sponsor and finance a preposterous test, the results of which can only reflect his narrow view of history, his incompetence in devising a test, and the refusal of an unknown proportion of the freshmen victims to take the absurdity seriously? Why does the *Times* play up and keep republishing the uninformed charges of both Nevins and Fraser, neither of whom have had experience in the schools or made even perfunctory studies of actual textbooks and courses of study or of actual classroom materials and practice? Why does the *Times* thus support efforts to persuade the public that American history is neglected, or that American history is something different from social studies, or that social studies have abolished chronology in history? Why does the *Times* allow its two self-constituted authorities on the school program in history and social studies to attribute the progress that has been made in increasing attention to recent American history, to economic, social, and cultural development in America, and to civics and problems of American democracy to be branded as the work of "extremists" rather than of our most responsible educators, including such historians and social scientists as constituted the Commission on the Social Studies? Does the *Times* accept the Nevins-Fraser implication that leaders in American education—including superintendents, principals, teachers, textbook authors and publishers, and the professors of history and social science in colleges, universities, and schools of education—have joined in a great nation-wide plot against American history, or been hoodwinked by a few "extremists" who for some unexplained reason want to subvert American history teaching? Hasn't it occurred to the *Times*

that its two crusaders for return to drill on political details may be "extremists?"—that the responsible officials who have denounced Fraser's charges may know better than he what goes on in their schools?—and that those educators who actually know and work in the schools or who, like the Commission on the Social Studies, have spent years in studying the purposes, possibilities, and responsibilities of education, may have a better idea of what social studies should be taught than the two *Times* authorities have picked up in a few months of spare-time campaigning? Does the *Times* feel no responsibility for seeing to it that the impressions of American history teaching that it is persistently etching into the mind of the American public bear some relation to actuality? Does the *Times* believe that its test and report and frequent republication of the Nevins-Fraser charges can do no harm?

DANGERS IN THE TEST AND REPORT

MANY commentators, who have taken, at face value, the *Times* test and report, and thus been understandably horrified at the ignorance—if not the flippancy!—of freshmen, have assured the *Times* that it has rendered a public service. If the test reflects both the purposes of history teaching and the knowledge of high school graduates—neither of which is likely—such may be the case. But there are other possibilities. America can no longer be understood by studying America alone. Young Americans need to study, in school and college, the history of other countries. America can not be understood by learning and drilling on the names, places, dates, and events of our history from 1787 to 1900. Such study is futile if the information lacks meaning and if it is not kept fresh through use—as several commentators, including President MacCracken of Vassar, have been prompt to point out, and we can not afford to cut young citizens off from a study of contemporary times and issues. There are dangers that some groups will seize upon the report to prevent study of other countries and peoples, and that reactionaries will seize upon it to prevent study of issues that are controversial and considered "dangerous."

The report is calculated to reduce confidence in the schools and in responsible school authorities. Relying on amateurs and "crusaders," and ignoring educational specialists, the *Times* purports to show that the school authorities have not known what they were about, have been negligent in laying the foundations for informed and patriotic citizenship. The *Times* invites,

(Please turn to page 240)

Building Youth Morale in Wartime

Alonzo G. Grace

WITHOUT parading, fantastic demonstrations, or accelerated pulses, war has come again within a generation. We began our offensive without unusual methods of conquering the minds and emotions of people. Pearl Harbor accomplished this. To survive we must win the war. With this concept we stand united. The citizens of tomorrow, however, must be provided with the training essential to the wise, effective, and rational reconstruction of a world in disorder. The schools and colleges of America, therefore, should be regarded as one of the major fronts in a multi-frontal attack upon totalitarian methods and procedures.

Morale is the thing that sustains men when the hours seem darkest. It is the stuff that enables men to endure hardship, privation, and suffering; to accept sacrifice as a way of life. Morale is faith and hope. What, then, are some of the elements in building youth morale in wartime?

FAITH IN THE THINGS FOR WHICH WE FIGHT

THERE must be an abiding faith in the destiny of free men. Free men will continue to remain free as long as self-discipline, a first element in freedom, prevails. The schools and colleges of America must go forward, for without schools and colleges, inevitably ignorance will prevail. Educational neglect leads to ignorance, and the interest on ignorance is compounded. It may be collectible in the future by demagogues. In justice to the profession which we represent, the clear vision and sober discipline which we would develop in others must be reflected in our every act.

The record of civilization presents a panorama of courage, faith, hardship, sacrifice, inconvenience, of tolerance of intolerance, and of mortification of pride. But it also reveals examples of violation of sacred trust, lack of expectation, and

the passing of societies of diseased refinement. Have we reached such a state of perfection in this miraculous age that again there is danger of degeneracy and decay? In our struggle for survival to make life more endurable for all, has selfishness merely intellectualized and made more palatable the practices of paleolithic times? What is it that we defend? Within a generation, why do we once more march through the valley of destruction? One can not, in a few sentences, describe the passionate feeling that each should possess for the ideal society toward which we move. It is our way of life, a way of life that has evolved over the ages, for which we fight.

WHAT we fight for is democracy, a democracy that is something more than a form of government, or a machinery, or a procedure, or even a way of life. It is all of these and more. Each of us has his own concept; perhaps each would define democracy in a different way. To me, it may be defined somewhat as follows:

Democracy is a form of social organization in which the supreme purpose of the state, the creation of free men, is to maintain the dignity of the individual; and in which the strength of the state and the security of the members therein rests upon the capacity of the individual to recognize and to assume responsibility for the welfare, the protection, the health and the happiness of his fellows.

Perhaps we have been too credulous concerning the manner in which our democratic society has evolved. We are as we are in this great country not because of topography, favorable geographic location, and our vast natural resources, nor solely because oppressed men sought freedom. Ours is an evolution of the ideal society from the early days of primitive man. Faith in our country, our way of life, our institutions, our capacity to solve problems rationally, and our ability to improve the lot of men represents the first essential of morale.

REDIRECTION OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

THOSE close to the educational enterprise may endeavor to cling closely to the traditional pattern, regarding modifications in program and procedure as a violation of standards. Some will become fearful of an abandonment

The war tests our schools and our youth—but it also brings great opportunities for strengthening our democracy. Needs and policies are here considered by the Commissioner of Education for the State of Connecticut.

of services or the curtailment of plans. Already evidence of panicky thinking in the proposals concerning institutional adjustments has been observed. Calm, courageous, rational thinking, and sober, consistent, unselfish action will be necessary among those of us who are committed to the preparation of a people for an all-out war effort and the simultaneous training of youth for tomorrow's civilization.

The social prestige attached to a part of the educational program must give way to a balance which will enable the individual to appreciate his fellows and their work as an essential part of our way of life. The skilled mechanic, the common laborer, the doctor, and the scholar all are essential elements in our economy.

There is need for balance in American education. Learning to live and learning to make a living are essential goals in education. It will be an eventful day in this country when we abandon all the curricula as such, bringing together, through a guidance program that guides, on the one hand a body of subjects and experiences, and on the other, our youth.

The development of moral principles in the individual is an essential part of the educational program. The individual who possesses intellectual competency and manual dexterity but lacks moral principles is a menace to society. Some school practices, in my judgment, contribute to the moral weakening of the individual, as for example, punishment for telling the truth, emphasis on the quantitateness of homework assignments, thus forcing the individual to resort to unusual practices in order to maintain standards, and others. Obviously, the total education of youth is not all confined to the school. In many instances the incidental education in life, that is, the education that is acquired in home and community, may be more effective in the development of moral concepts than anything taught in a short school day.

IT IS impossible to present here many of the fundamental elements required in the redirection of the school program in our country. Consider, however, the area of the social studies as an example. The present world crisis hardly had become apparent when the schools were requested to develop separate courses in Latin-American history and culture as a method of improving our Latin-American relations. Soon it became evident that such a course would exclude our neighbors to the North, and thus it was concluded that a course on hemisphere prob-

lems should be organized. With Pearl Harbor came the demand for courses on the Far East. It is not too much to assume that ultimately requests will be received to include courses on Russia and Africa in the secondary-school curriculum.

It becomes evident that (1) if American education is to operate on a qualitative ideal, all things can not be taught to all people within a space of twelve years. (2) The secondary-school program can not continue to expand without eliminating something. What shall be discontinued? (3) So much should not be undertaken in four years of secondary school that failure to train for citizenship in a democracy results.

This war involves concepts, ideas, and ideals as well as production and battle fronts. We must be certain that we do not destroy Hitler and retain Hitlerism; that we do not destroy fascism and retain fascist ideals. First of all, throughout the schools, our boys and girls should be made acquainted with the fact that, in a critical period such as this, some of our liberties must voluntarily be suspended. They also should learn that the regimentation which is now accepted must not become a permanent feature of American life. It would be a tragedy for America should we raise a generation indoctrinated with the idea of regimentation, the rationing of commodities, including wealth, the abandonment of free enterprise, or the allocation of manpower by government. We must be certain that the boys and girls in the elementary and the junior high school, who may never participate in this war, shall continue to know the meaning of freedom.

Boys and girls must learn, however, that there is no freedom without rigid self-discipline. We must see to it that they know how to think constructively and independently; that they accept the community as the cell of democracy; that they recognize a planned economy and regimentation essential to a unified war effort, but also recognize its incompatibility with the democracy of which we are a part; that they realize self-control is a most essential pre-requisite of success in this war or thereafter.

The complete adjustment of school to war perhaps need not be discussed or described at this time. Yet it is essential that schools readjust programs in order that adolescents and youth may play an organized part in the total war effort.

It is a time also when educators must rethink practices and procedures. Some of the busy work which we have contended to be education has

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been little more than a hurdle in the way of the self-development of the individual. More should be accomplished in the development of self-motivation, ingenuity, discovery of talent, in education based on what the individual already possesses. Our people must learn the meaning of work and sacrifice whether it be intellectual or manual. More learning and less teaching is required. Major adjustments are required in American education not only for war but also for the days of peace to come.

PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY PLANNING

SINCE the enactment of the Selective Service measure reducing the age of induction to eighteen, many high school students and most college male youth will enter the armed forces unless allocated to other phases of the war effort. Below the age of eighteen and throughout the secondary schools, every youth should be identified in school with some phase of the war activity. Whether or not the school adopts a Victory Corps organization is not so essential as that the school have a program in which every individual may participate. We must avoid, even in the war, the formation of national youth movements based on the Hitler concept of youth organization or geared to totalitarian procedures.

The first procedure in the totalitarian state has been a drastic reorganization of the educational system to produce the kind of members desired for the ultimate purpose of the state. The American educational system, evolving as it has over the generations, is based upon a totally different idea. The control of educational opportunity in this country is not centralized. The educational system is organized on a local basis, for in the United States the community is regarded as the cell of democracy. The importance of local initiative and responsibility is a matter not to be regarded lightly as we face the future. Through state leadership, service, research, and planning, with Federal financial assistance and leadership, and with local willingness to provide adjustments, a more effective educational opportunity is on the horizon.

Three fundamental changes involving school and community life are suggested:

1. The early induction of youth into community planning and areas of civic responsibility. Local leagues of women voters, business men's associations, labor organizations, and service clubs would do well to invite into membership boys and girls from the local high school.
2. Development of a plan of assistance during election periods and other volunteer services similar to civilian defense activities during wartime.

3. Extension of the right to vote to all youth who have attained the age of eighteen. If youth at eighteen has the judgment, the courage, the capacity, and the requirements required for service in a global war, he must possess the qualities for induction into citizenship, and I am entirely in favor of extending the right to vote to youth who have attained the age of eighteen. Induction into responsible citizenship must start earlier.

POST-WAR OPPORTUNITY AND WELFARE

NO GOVERNMENT or political system is safe when men are unemployed for long periods. Fundamental problems and conditions affecting the employment of men must be faced realistically. The best guarantee of security to property and to men is a nation of employed men and women. Those who are employed and who own their own homes are not likely to trade liberty for security. A home-owning employed population is not likely to succumb to the fantastic proposals of those who have little regard either for liberty or for security.

Society, then, has two fundamental obligations: (1) to provide work for everyone who desires to work, and (2) to provide an educational system that will teach the individual not only how to live but also how to make a living. The job in itself may not represent a final solution to the problems of mankind, but the youth who have been called into the armed services of our country to fight the battle of liberty, the battle of survival for all of us, has left home and a community which for the first time in ten years afforded the opportunity for employment at a regular job. Youth has a right to an opportunity to work, marry, settle down, rear a family, and become a responsible member of the community. Several suggestions may be made at this point:

1. If we are to build a sound society based on the concepts of individual enterprise, it would be wise for government, management, and labor to plan now for the uncertain future. Youth must be provided his opportunity for work, and if this be not possible under private enterprise, government programs will be required.

2. Youth have withdrawn from our colleges and secondary schools to enter the armed services. We have a responsibility to guarantee these citizens that the opportunity to develop their talents and capacities shall not be denied because of the present engagement; that a system of national and state scholarships will be made available to the individual to continue his education. In addition, in my judgment, scholarships for exceptional talent should be provided.

3. Health examinations and health service should be made available to all our youth. It does little good to discover dental defects in the classroom through the examination by the dental hygienist only to have the lack of care reflected in the physical condition of our men in the first call of Selective Service. It is the responsibility of the community to provide remedial measures either

through the family physician or through community health agencies.

4. Organized community recreational programs are essential if youth is to spend his leisure hours profitably. Exclusive clubs are organized for those that have the means to participate. Why not consider the organization of municipal or town clubs for boys and girls?

YOUTH AND THE ARMED FORCES

THUS far we have failed to use the great resources available for the training of our youth. A closer relationship between organized education, the Manpower Commission, and the armed services is essential. In time, no doubt this will develop. In the meantime, our sources for the production of doctors, scientists, technicians, physical-fitness experts, and vocational-training specialists are drying up because of the failure to allocate teachers to the strategic job of training others; the resources of our colleges, universities, and technical schools have not been used intensively for training purposes; eighteen-year-old youth is confused because of the lack of policy with respect to induction and continued school attendance.

Either all should remain in school until the end of the current school year or school adjustments should be made to provide immediate graduation. In my judgment, the eighteen-year-old profitably might remain in school for the balance of the year in which he reaches eighteen provided the secondary-school program has been adjusted to meet his particular needs with particular reference to pre-induction training.

EQUALIZATION OF SACRIFICE

IT SEEMS strange that complaints concerning the curtailment in the use of coffee or restrictions with respect to the use of gasoline and travel should develop among civilians. What does sacrifice mean? The boys in the armed services on thirty-two fronts are not talking about the pound of coffee, the wage rate, the rate of profit, the inconvenience of travel, the shortage of supplies. The citizen whose business has disappeared completely has not raised a great complaint concerning the meaning of total war; those who work for a salary which in many instances has not been adjusted to meet the increased cost of living have not bitterly complained.

Total war means more than service in the

armed forces. It means more than producing the instruments of war. It involves every man, woman, and child in our nation. No single group in our civilian organization should enjoy special privileges in the way of transportation, rubber, gasoline, or income. If the boys who fight the battles believe that the sacrifice of those who produce the weapons and those who fight on the civilian front generally represent an all-out effort, victory will be that much closer. Because one is engaged in the war production is no reason for service without sacrifice. Sacrifice is not something to be endured by others. It applies to all.

I presume each generation must endure the criticism of the preceding generation with respect to the attitudes and habits of youth. It was not youth who created installment buying, or living beyond our means. It was not youth who created an outside educational system that has had much to do with the molding of human destiny and the development of ideas and ideals—the motion picture, the radio, the press, and all the ramifications of these means of communication. It was not youth who developed an education for waste. The corner tavern, the bootlegging of the twenties, parents neglecting their responsibilities, a society without jobs for all and content to meet an employment problem by more years of inadequate schooling, communities in which there are neither health examinations nor a follow-up of the individual to provide for the remedial defects—these and many more have had influence.

WE HAVE a job not only in giving to the war effort but also to see that the very things for which we fight will not be lost because of the ignorance, the lack of information, the absence of courageous thinking on the part of a generation to come. Train a generation that understands its responsibilities as well as its rights and privileges; that accepts tolerance and understanding as essential to the solution of our common problems; that recognizes the need intelligently to adjust to changing life situations. These are among the major assignments. It is part of the challenge that confronts us. The millions who constitute our armed forces and who have entered wholeheartedly into the wartime activities of this country are a tribute to the youth of this generation. Let us have faith in youth.

Ration Stamps and Salvage: A Tenth-Grade Project

Walter Ludwig

WAR has taken the earthy issues of conservation and dumped them on every family's doorstep. Through their wartime manifestations they promise to become popularly recognizable. Reclamation of misused lands now appears as the re-use of scrap metals, rubber, and fats. The planned, intelligent use of soil, forests, and minerals finds its counterpart today in programs of enforced rationing to insure adequate supplies of essential war materials and a sparing use and fair distribution of consumer goods. Human resources not needed and ill cared for a scant five years ago are now being mobilized for the most exacting and efficient uses. Thus the War Production Board, the Office of Price Administration, and the War Manpower Commission are weaving patterns of conservation into the fabric and fringes of our national life.

With such wartime planning our young people have a connection often lacking when they study the needs and programs of conservation of natural resources. Can the stamps for sugar, coffee, canned goods, meat, shoes, and gasoline in the family's precious rationing books be used as tickets to an understanding of those economic and civic relationships of which rationing is the wartime expression?

A tenth-grade study at George School aimed to make plain the purpose and extent of scrap collection and rationing efforts; to show that rationing is an essentially fair way of distributing hard-to-get goods; to consider the reasons why American citizens cooperate willingly in programs that limit inherited and accepted personal privileges;

The war brings both opportunity and necessity for applied citizenship in our schools—for action as well as study. The tenth-grade program reported here by the teacher in charge was carried on at the George School, Bucks County, Pennsylvania, where a new three-year curriculum in American Relations was instituted last fall.

to build support for government conservation programs undertaken in times of peace as well as for salvage and rationing programs in time of war.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

A COOPERATIVE work program, thoroughly considered during the year 1941-42 by faculty and students, had been launched in the fall. All pupils and teachers participated in a wide variety of maintenance and service jobs in the household and laundry, dining room and pantry, laboratories and gymnasium, dormitories and classrooms. For the first time in their lives many boys and girls were working at tasks essential for the well-being of a community. Their experiences lent unexpected support to an inquiry of how the nation cooperates in efforts that affect us all.

Care of equipment discussed at a meeting of the student workers provided points of contact for introducing the study. "Take care to stand push brooms on the handle end," explained the household manager, "because we can't get any more China bristle brooms for love or money. What we get now are mixed with fibre and Brazilian horse hair, and even so cost us \$1.08 a dozen." Cotton mops had jumped from 36 cents to 68 cents per pound. With care, they will last longer. The paper baling crew asked pupils to put only paper, cartons, and "usable waste" in the green barrels around the campus.

In late September the class made a blackboard listing of articles which they had found hard to get: a typewriter, golf and tennis balls, bicycles (a girl was indignant because the rationing board had denied her request for a bike), sugar, coffee, tires, gasoline. Then a classification was attempted of their eighteen items (including services) to determine the cause of scarcity. Was it a raw-materials shortage, either domestic or foreign, or a problem of processing and manufacturing, or a manpower shortage? Listed also were materials which were being salvaged in their home communities. All knew that these items were needed "to help win the war." As to how

they would help or what would be done with the tin cans, greases, paper, and scrap, the class was less clear.

More basic questions developed. What means are being taken to make sure that there will be enough to go around for civilians in the United States, for our armed forces, for our allies? Will voluntary cooperation do the job, or will the government, to make certain of sparing use and adequate supplies, increasingly require civilians to follow a planned system of distribution? Why will Mr. John Q. free American with money to pay for what he wants, comply with these requirements? What sort of cooperation will we Americans have to be capable of to win the peace after the war?

In opening up these questions and developing activities, the class worked chiefly with materials from three sources: the school community, which includes about 500 boarding and day pupils, and staff; the surrounding towns, from which the day students come; and the national scrap-metal campaign of September-October, 1942.

TRIPS, INTERVIEWS, AND INVESTIGATIONS

TRIPS were taken to provide a common group experience, to discover how our immediate community was being affected, and to initiate activities. These experiences included a committee trip through the school's kitchens and store-rooms, and conference with the dietitian; a committee conference with the director of the household department; a class trip to the offices of the rationing board at Newtown, providing opportunity for observation and for conference with board members and the local chairman of the Selective Service Board; a talk to the class on "Priorities" by the school's business manager; and a class trip to the school's farm and a conference with the farm manager. A later trip was taken to observe erosion control, contour plowing, and strip cropping.

Reports by committees, observations on trips, and reading of newspaper and periodical material led to the development of individual and group activities for the organization of data. These produced a topical bibliography of magazine articles on rationing and salvage, and a source book with newspaper clippings, pictures and cartoons, committee reports, leaflets, charts, etc., arranged chronologically to show the progress of rationing and salvage programs.

Before the class visited the rationing board, specific questions were framed: Why have some items been rationed and not others? Will coffee

be next? Will there be more or less sugar? Have rationed items been hoarded? What savings have been effected by rationing? How much sugar and gasoline have been saved in the Newtown area? What are the duties of the rationing board? Who selected the board? Does it have trouble getting people to work for it? What is its relation to George School? How do people take rationing? Are they cooperative? Will gasoline be rationed throughout the nation?

In connection with an individual research project on "My Town's Part in the National Campaign for Scrap Metal," each pupil studied the organization and outcome of the September-October scrap-metal campaign in his town or city. Day students visited the scrap center and interviewed members of the scrap committee and others connected with the local campaign. Boarding students followed newspaper accounts of the progress of the campaign in their cities. Each student wrote a report, illustrated with pictures, throw-aways, or clippings, and supported by three graphs showing: (1) population totals for the twelve towns, boroughs, and cities represented; (2) total tonnage collected by each town or city; and (3) per capita collection in tons.

To answer questions raised in class, three pupils wrote letters, one to a prominent scrap dealer inviting him to speak to the class on how the scrap was to be moved and used in making war materials, and the effect of the campaign on scrap dealers; a second to the chairman of the national Newspaper Scrap Campaign asking, whether the weights of scrap in most towns and cities were estimated or actual, whether papers contributed the space they gave to the campaign, and what was the final outcome of the campaign by states; and a third requesting copies for each member of the class of *A Primer on Scrap* (obtained free from the Institute of Scrap and Iron and Steel, Inc., 1626 K Street, N.W., Washington). Related data was provided through a showing of "Salvage," an Office of War Information motion picture. Day students inquired of local grocers concerning effects upon customers' buying habits of the announcement of future rationing of canned goods.

Oral reports to the class, and written reports from six of the nine committees, were followed up with stories for the school paper about the effects of rationing and priorities upon George School. The town's record in per capita collection of scrap was worked into a story, with a table, and was published on the front page of the local newspaper.

RELATED ACTIVITIES

TWO volunteers helped the local rationing board with clerical work, and four students volunteered for Saturday work on neighboring farms. In response to a request from the school's Current Affairs Committee to inform the student body about the scrap campaign, the class put on an assembly program after deciding that it should be "a sketch of some sort, not a speech by one person because that isn't interesting and we've all been working on this." The sketch emphasized the per capita superiority, in tons collected, of several nearby towns when compared with large cities. In peace or in war, "don't forget the little towns," was the theme set to an interrupted radio favorite during which the Lone Ranger searches for his horse Silver. "There are a lot of small towns in America, and added up we count, too."

Correlation occurred when the teacher of mathematics discussed with the class the graphic representation of data and helped them with statistics and graphing; when an English teacher, adviser to the school's paper, spoke to the class on the writing of a news story, and when the class in journalism read and criticized the tenth-grade news stories; and when the art department helped in the preparation of waste cans for the campus.

"Leading on" elements in the study appeared on the trip to the local rationing board. The chairman of the board referred to certain commodities as being "frozen," meaning that a priority order from the War Production Board was necessary to release them. The class had just learned the functions of another initialed agency of government, the OPA, and its connections with the local and Philadelphia rationing offices. What was the job of the WPB?

The school's business manager made plain the functions of WPB and priority procedures by telling how he went about getting a larger milk cooler for the farm. Even with an A-8 rating (better than the school's usual A-10 rating, but not so good as AA-1, the rating for military supplies) the cooler did not arrive until three or four days before school opened. Rare metal parts, made of brass and copper, needed for the power plant, had to be applied for on special form A-1-K and though approved had not yet arrived. Anticipating oil shortages the school had, a year ago, spent \$5000 converting one of its boilers to burn coal. But supplies for renovating the chemistry laboratory, tar materials for repairing the roads, and of course rubber tires for the dining room trucks could not be had at all.

The class enjoyed being taken behind the

scenes, and their questions ranged from a request for a "short definition of priorities" to whether the government may not say to the school, "We're taking care of the public schools; you're a private school." Cautions about caring for what we have, and not making unnecessary labor for other people now that we are all sharing in the work, were listened to attentively—the more so because the business manager every morning operates the paper-baling machine with a work crew of students. His mention of aged Billy Meadows, who picks up carelessly dropped papers around the campus but might be released for other duties if students were more careful, led to a talk with Mr. Meadows and our waste-can collection activity.

CIVIC APPLICATIONS

STRIKING a balance between freedom and compulsion presented problems. The rationing board had assured the class that most people are honest, are not trying to chisel. The public will cooperate when it understands a situation. Like the irate farmer who came to town to "beat up" the chairman because the board had mislaid his gasoline application, but was humbled and apologetic when he learned that an understaffed board of volunteers was serving an area of 35,000 people and working without even a filing cabinet. On the other hand it isn't enough simply to appeal to people to use things sparingly, to cut down driving. The facts about the gasoline saved and the reduction of driving in rationed states were convincing. There has to be compulsion. And rationing everyone alike is the fair way to apply it.

Can people be trusted not to hoard? The class split on the question. Some thought the government had made a mistake in announcing the rationing of canned goods so far ahead of the fact. People will stock up and when the time comes won't declare what they have. "There are too many people in the United States to penalize everybody." Instances of hoarding were cited. The day students reported that according to their grocers there was a run on canned goods and that most of the stores had already put into effect rationing plans of their own. "Even so," argued Polly, "It's best for the government to be fair and honest with the people and prepare them for it. We must trust the people." When the school's business manager told the class that certain supplies which will last through this year probably can not be had next year, someone asked, "Why don't you get them now for next year?" His answer carried the weight of good example. "Be-

cause it isn't fair for a few people to stock up when others can't afford to. We try to carry a reasonable inventory."

Another aspect of individual freedom within a democracy at war was presented when the class viewed the OWI film, "Salvage." One shot showed a housewife straining kitchen greases into a jar which when full she sold to her butcher. "One pound will make enough nitroglycerin for five anti-tank bullets," said the commentator.

"My mother used to use fats to make soap," said Ann when the film was being discussed, "But they said the soap factories can make a much better soap faster. Besides the government needs the nitroglycerin."

Pat: "I'll also use my mother as an authority. She makes soap for the American Friends Service Committee. It's a good soap, too, it lathers, and a factory can't make any more than a pound of soap from a pound of fat. The Service Committee used to send it to France, but they need soap in England, too, so why shouldn't we make our fat into soap and send it there?"

Jean: "And the labor in the soap factories can be used to make other things."

Bob: "But glycerin is needed to win the war and if the government asks for the fat you ought to help the government."

Susie (very quietly): "Some people won't save fat for glycerin because it will be used for bullets. Let these people make soap and let the others sell it to the butcher."

"That's good," agreed the class, relieved. "It isn't being wasted either way."

Marge wasn't satisfied. "The people in my neighborhood wouldn't agree to that. They'd say if you don't use the fat for bullets you aren't patriotic." Nods of assent to this new angle.

Bob: "You can't do what you'd like to. You pay an income tax and you're helping the war, and buying bonds is buying war materials."

Pat: But you *have* to pay the income tax; there's no choice. And you don't have to give fat for bullets."

Bob: "You have to give compulsory service, don't you?"

Someone mentioned the Civilian Public Service camps as another form of service allowed by the government, and the teacher confirmed the government's approval of this form of service for those who can prove their conscientious op-

position to war. Since the government respects conscience in relation to bearing arms it likely will in those who use their time and greases for such a good purpose as making soap. Perhaps Marge's neighbors hadn't thought of it that way.

RATIONING, like war, involves a transition from freedom to necessity, from voluntarism to compulsion in the appraisal of our needs. Civilian Americans are learning to get along not with what they have had or what they think they need, but with what it is possible for them to have. How much enforced redistribution will carry over into the peace if "freedom from want" is to be attained?

Sally was reporting the nation's average per capita consumption of butter. "It will be cut from 16 pounds in 1942 to 13 pounds in 1943." Members of the class eyed her dubiously. "What's that for, a week or a month?" Sally looked uncertainly at her notes and said weakly, "No, it's for a year."

Incredible! Well, how much butter do we here at school use in a year? No one had any idea but the school's dietitian gave us the figures to two decimal places. In 1941-42 the school averaged 4.17 pounds per person per month. That's 50 pounds for each of us a year, four times as much butter as the per capita allotment for the country. This finding pointed up our study of the emergency-subsistence diets on which 74 per cent of American families lived during most of the 1930's. What should our share of the butter—or oleo—be if the nation's output is to go 'round among our armed forces, our allies, and civilian Americans?

Will experiences with enforced sharing make some of us impatient for peace when we may return to our accustomed places and standards as consumers? Perhaps America's enormous mass-production capacity can be mobilized to make "freedom from want" a true condition in our country. Or does global war imply a global economy as a condition of peace, and extension of what Stuart Chase calls the "give 'em a break" idea? If so, what will be the bearing of a global economy upon American standards? To win and keep the peace will be our toughest battle in which today's elementary and high school boys and girls must certainly engage. But adult America must soon decide what it is that we really want.

Three Great Documents

Eber Jeffery

BY CUSTOM the President of the United States faces eastward on his inauguration day and addresses the crowd assembled on the Capitol Plaza. Coincidentally he is then facing toward the shrine that for years housed two of the world's most precious pieces of parchment. In a huge building of gray stone a few hundred feet east of the Capitol rests the modest repository in which the originals of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States were kept. There at the Library of Congress they were on public exhibit for eighteen years prior to January, 1942. To this spot came Americans from all stations in life, three hundred thousand of them every year, to view the two documents sacred to every citizen.

HOW did the actual handwritten evidence of early American political faith come into existence? In whose custody have the precious documents rested for five generations? General historical works can give little space to this sort of question. Adequate treatment of the work of the Constitutional Convention of 1787 is found in textbooks on the Constitution and in conventional history textbooks. But rarely is the business of the second Continental Congress, which adopted the Declaration of Independence, treated in enough detail to capture much reader interest.

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

THE noteworthy action of Congress on that day of destiny, July 4, 1776, was recorded by the secretary in words of astonishing simplicity.

Agreeable to the order of the day the Congress resolved itself into a committee of the whole to take into their further consideration the Declaration

The president resumed the chair

Mr Harrison reported that the committee of the whole

The travels and measures taken for the protection of the Constitution, the Declaration of Independence, and the original manuscript of the message which included the Monroe Doctrine are described by a teacher of history in the Woodrow Wilson High School, Washington, D.C.

Congress have agreed to a Declaration which he delivered in

The Declaration being again read was agreed to as follows [The text was inserted here].

Simply, "... was agreed to"! The British Colonies along the Atlantic Coast of North America were thus formally transformed into the United States of America.

The calendar of significant measures leading up to the events of July 4 included these steps:

Wednesday, May 15, the Virginia Convention instructed delegates from that state to the General Congress to propose Independence for the Colonies.

Friday, June 7, Delegate Richard Henry Lee presented his famous resolution for independence to Congress, in substantially the words of his instructions from the Convention. Action postponed for three weeks in order for a committee to have time "to prepare a declaration to the effect of the said resolution."

Saturday, June 8, the "resolutions respecting independence" considered further in the committee of the whole; the committee to sit again for similar purpose Monday.

Monday, June 10, resolved that the committee to prepare a declaration be appointed. Further action postponed until July 1.

Tuesday, June 11, resolved "that the Committee for preparing the Declaration consist of five." The members appointed.

Friday, June 28, "... the Committee ... brought in a draft; which was read. Ordered, to lie on the table."

Monday, July 1, the "Resolution respecting Independence" considered, but the "determination thereof was, at the request of a Colony, postponed till tomorrow."

Tuesday, July 2, the Lee Resolution, "That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and Independent States . . .", was finally adopted. The matter of declaring the reasons for independence was slated for the next day's business.

Wednesday, July 3, Benjamin Harrison, chairman of the committee of the whole, "reported that the committee had not yet gone through it [the Declaration] and desired leave to sit again." Which brings the record down to the momentous agreement of July 4.

Congress also ordered that the Declaration be printed, and instructed the committee that prepared it to "superintend and correct the press." Copies were ordered sent to State Assemblies and Conventions and to the commanding officers of the Continental troops. And the Declaration was

to "be proclaimed . . . at the head of the Army."

The official engrossed copy was made some time between July 19 and August 2, probably by Timothy Matlack, says John C. Fitzpatrick in his interesting volume, *The Spirit of the Revolution*. Matlack, an assistant in the office of the Secretary of Congress, had engrossed Washington's commission as Commander-in-Chief of the Army more than a year earlier. It was customary for professional penmen to use parchment, made preferably from lamb skin, for official purposes. Matlack probably used sheets from the stock of some Philadelphia stationer.

ACCORDING to Fitzpatrick, at least ten cities up to now have had the distinction of harboring the engrossed Declaration. Want of a permanent seat for the Federal Government during the early years necessitated frequent movement of records, and the Declaration was moved from one place to another twenty or more times before its recent transfer in January, 1942.

1776—December, Philadelphia to Baltimore, where names of signers were first made public.

1777—March, Baltimore to Philadelphia. September, to Lancaster, Pennsylvania, then to York, Pennsylvania.

1778—July, York to Philadelphia.

1783—June, Philadelphia to Princeton, New Jersey. November, Princeton to Annapolis.

1784—November (?), Annapolis to Trenton.

1785—June, Trenton to New York.

1790—December, New York to Philadelphia. Housed in different buildings occupied by the Department of State.

1800—June, Philadelphia to Washington, Nineteenth Street and Pennsylvania Avenue.

1801—To the War Office Building, present site of the State, War, and Navy Building.

1814—August, to Edgar Patterson's barn (or grist mill), in Virginia, two miles west of the Chain Bridge, in charge of two clerks of the State Department in flight with wagon loads of Government records from the British raid on Washington. Here one night. On to Leesburg, Virginia, house of the Reverend Mr. Littlejohn.

1814—October, Leesburg to Washington, G Street near Eighteenth Street.

1820—To the Department of State, present site of the Treasury.

1841—To the new Patent Office Building, present offices of the Civil Service Commission. Patent Office at that time a division of the State Department. Publicly exhibited here until 1876.

1876—Washington to Philadelphia for exhibit at the Centennial Exposition.

1877—Philadelphia to Washington. The Patent Office had been transferred to the Department of the Interior in 1849. Hence, upon requisition of the State Department, the Declaration was placed in the then new State, War, and Navy Building; a fortunate move, for most of the contents of the Patent Office were destroyed by the fire of October in that year. Exhibited in the library of the State Department until 1894. Since deterioration had be-

come definitely noticeable in the parchment, it was shown only upon order of the Secretary of State during the next twenty-seven years.

1921—September, transferred to the Library of Congress by Executive Order, Number 3554, President Harding.

1924—February, placed in the shrine with the Constitution and exhibited continuously until January, 1942.

1942—January (or 1941, December), removed to "the safety of an inland repository many miles from Washington, under maximum security against any dangers now anticipated." Other "materials beyond value," including the Constitution and the St. Blasius-St. Paul copy of the Gutenberg Bible, were transported to this place of security after the startling events of December 7. An announcement of the transfer was made by the Librarian of Congress in the *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, February, 1942.

The staff of the National Archives had entertained hopes of acquiring custody of the two most cherished American documents. But the prevailing impression was that they would be kept permanently in the exhibit case at the Library. The war changed that, as well as other peacetime adjustment to which we were accustomed. Doubtless one of the early peacetime measures will be the return of the originals to their customary place of exhibit to the public. The copies now shown are facsimiles.

THE CONSTITUTION

THE original copy of the Constitution was engrossed on four pages of parchment probably by Jacob Shallus at the State House, Philadelphia, Saturday and Sunday, September 15 and 16, 1787. The Constitution Sesquicentennial Commission, 1937, reported the discovery of a financial entry of thirty dollars paid to Shallus for the hire of clerks to transcribe and engross the text. Shallus was the Assistant Clerk of the Pennsylvania State Assembly. Since the Constitution was prepared eleven years after the Declaration, it was never subject to the insecurity of the earliest days of the Republic when the Government headquarters was shifted hurriedly from town to town. Major William Jackson took the "new frame of government" to New York, delivering it to Charles Thomson, Secretary of Congress, probably on September 20, 1787. Mearns and Clapp are the authors of a brochure on the travels of the Constitution which tells of the locations where it was housed in New York. After the first Presidential inauguration in 1789 it was left in custody of the Department of State for one hundred and thirty-two years and was not exhibited to general public during that time.

In the fall of 1790 the Constitution was moved back to Philadelphia with other Federal records.

Here it remained for ten years with the possible exception of a brief sojourn of the State Department in Trenton during the yellow-fever epidemic of 1798. With the removal of the government to Washington in 1800 the State Department archives, including the Constitution, were taken by water and landed at the G Street wharf, according to Mearns and Clapp. Due to the prompt and energetic action of two or three departmental clerks in the summer of 1814, the priceless sheets of parchment made the journey to Patterson's barn (or grist mill) and on to Leesburg along with the Declaration of Independence and other important papers, thus avoiding danger during the August invasion by the British troops.

After October, 1814, the Constitution was housed in half a dozen different places in Washington where the State Department was located before removal to the State, War, and Navy Building in 1875. Finally it was transferred to the Library of Congress with the Declaration of Independence on September 30, 1921. And in February, 1924, the originals were installed in the repository specially designed by Francis H. Bacon to exhibit them freely to all and at the same time afford protection from the damaging effects of light and air.

THE LIBRARY SHRINE

VISITORS by the thousands filed past the unpretentious shrine every month of the year; Americans of all imaginable types and from every known occupation. The number obviously of foreign extraction was surprisingly large. These people seemed often to peer at the actual written guarantees of their liberties with an attitude of almost reverent timidity. At the suggestion of the writer of this article, the Librarian of Congress ordered a count of visitors to the shrine to be made commencing in November 1940. For the following five months the average was 4,800 visitors a week. During April, May, and June this number increased by approximately 60 per cent. For some of these individuals the visit was a high point in the tour of a lifetime in the Capital City; for certain of the more blasé high school students it was a barely noticeable interruption in the adolescent gabfest that characterized the bus excursion to Washington during Easter vacation; for still others (on conducted tours) it was only one more climb up and down one more marble stairway to see something or other that even Aunt Lizzie could scarcely remember when they had returned to the five-in-a-room tourist home on Maryland Avenue. By all, the experi-

ence should have been regarded as a solemn privilege.

Among the nations of the earth only in the United States did the citizens have a free opportunity to examine their original charter of basic human rights and the documentary assurance of their liberties—rights and liberties that have been exercised as written for more than a century and a half, and that in the turbulence and repression of recent years seem more than ever to represent the hope of mankind.

THE MONROE DOCTRINE

THE hope of mankind to live under decent principles of justice and to secure the protection afforded by freedom of expression is now championed by the peoples of the United Nations. A situation in some ways comparable existed almost a century and quarter ago when American and British interests were driven together by a peculiar combination of international forces. The position of this country was made clear at that time by the most famous of official American statements of foreign policy. This statement was included in the Presidential message to Congress of December 2, 1823.

The original handwritten copy, signed by James Monroe, formerly was exhibited just a short way down the corridor northward from the shrine of the Constitution. But it did not attract a great throng of visitors. In fact, observers expressed surprise that only an occasional wanderer stopped to examine the original of a document of such universal renown, the pronouncement that always has been known as the Monroe Doctrine.

To cite again parts of a familiar quotation, Monroe said in part;

... the occasion has been judged proper for asserting, as a principle in which the rights and interests of the United States are involved, that the American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power.

We owe it, therefore, to candor and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and those powers, to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. . . . we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them, or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European power in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States. . . .

"Their system" referred in 1823 to the autocratic system upheld by the rulers of Prussia, Russia, and Austria, and France, who planned

world domination through the Quadruple Alliance. Today similar lust for power and more thoroughgoing plans to dominate the world have driven independent nations everywhere to desperate measures. Styles in terminology have changed. Totalitarianism and collectivism were not commonplace terms in the early nineteenth century. The Czar Alexander and Prince Metternich would have been sadly befuddled by our remarks about strange ideologies, frozen credits, and industrial bottlenecks. However, then as now, the machinations of power-loving autocrats endangered all of the free peoples of the world.

Then as now, the western hemisphere was the refuge for lovers of freedom and at the same time a tempting area in which to promote the system of personalized power politics. President Monroe announced his intention to protect this hemisphere from the menace of authoritarianism. Few announcements in the field of foreign policy have rung so clear and almost none has proved more enduring. The Monroe Doctrine was a protest against the threat of autocracy in America. The spirit of protest is stronger today than ever.

The House copy of Monroe's message is among the papers of the House of Representatives, some of which are deposited at the Library of Congress but are not part of its collections. These

remain at the Library as the House has ordered the removal of none of them for purposes of wartime security.

THE DOCUMENTS AND AMERICAN TRADITIONS

THE framework of American habits of thought is deeply embedded in the philosophy revealed by the great documents. They are great. The related traditions and the resulting outlook demand meaningful treatment by educators. Of such material is formed the foundation upon which the social structure of the future is building. It is to be hoped that conditions soon may warrant the return of the originals to places of easy access for all of the people.

Note: The Proceedings of the Continental Congress are recorded in *American Archives*, edited by Peter Force, Fourth Series (Washington, 1846); also in the *Journals of the Continental Congress, 1774-1789*, 34 volumes (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1906). The excerpt concerning the business of July 4 was taken from the original Journal of the Congress, well preserved in the handwriting of the Secretary. The Senate copy of Monroe's message of 1823 is kept at the Capitol in charge of the Secretary of the Senate. *The Constitution of the United States, An Account of Its Travels Since September 17, 1787*, pamphlet, by David C. Mearns and Verner W. Clapp, was issued by the Library of Congress in 1939. A story of the discovery of the record of Shallus as engrosser of the Constitution appeared in the *Philadelphia Record*, October 7, 1937.

The Challenge to American Schools

Winning the war and winning the peace are the twin objectives of our victory program. They must proceed simultaneously. Winning the peace means the establishing of a framework for international cooperation within which solutions of problems which concern the entire world community may be found by joint action of the members of that community.

True international cooperation must be based on a sympathetic understanding by all peoples of cultures different from their own. But understanding alone is not enough. The United States, with other nations, must assume responsibilities for world order commensurate with its strength. It is therefore essential to provide the youth now in school with the information and to cultivate in them the attitudes that will enable them to act intelligently as citizens of the world community. . . . [The full manifesto, for bulletin board use, is available from the Commission to Study the Organization of Peace or the League of Nations Association, 8 West 40th Street, New York, on request.]

That Everlasting Peace

Boyd C. Shafer

THE only final lasting peace for homo sapiens is death, and for the wicked among us even this may be doubtful. Yet for hundreds of years well-meaning, if simple, men have spoken of "permanent," "irrevocable," "definitive" settlements of the disputes between nations. The Congress of Vienna, according to Metternich and Alexander, was supposed to give a lasting peace to Europe. At the Congress of Berlin, after the Russo-Turkish war, the assembled brokers led by Bismarck believed they had established a final arrangement of Europe's problems. In 1919 the Treaty of Versailles was declared, and on high authority, to constitute an end to war for all time. Every peace from the sweeping impositions of Napoleon to those minor treaties between the Indians and frontier Americans, was envisioned as the end of conflict. And now again we are told we must fight until peace is "made safe throughout the world."

Each of the thousand settlements, however, has only been the prelude to, if not the origin of future conflicts. Obviously no permanent peace has yet been established. Arrangements of territories or peoples or trade have inevitably fallen because, in every case, of existing feeling of oppression or new grievances or ambitions upon the part of one or the other participant. Wars too many to count have been gloriously won and, as we ought to know too well, the resulting peaces have been as ingloriously lost. Victories, glorious for the moment, have been achieved, celebrated, only to find the battlefield reopened on the morrow, the battles to be refought, sometimes lost, at any rate fought again. And yet, even now, we hear the old cries of a permanent peace reiterated.

FAILURE OF REPRESSION

NEARLY every war treaty has made the fatal assumption that the way to establish a real peace was to so weaken the loser that he

War can be abolished, but not without provision for peaceful change. Such is the thesis of the chairman of the social science department at the Stout Institute, Menomonie, Wisconsin.

might not rise again. An Anthony Eden has always promised that the conditions of the new peace would not allow the horrible aggressor (that is the enemy) to arise again and ruin the dreams of peaceful men. But when have the men of one generation been able to speak for or control their contemporaries, not to speak of the new and unremembering generations to come? The Anthony Edens forget that no men, if they are alive, are ever quiescent for more than a moment, that they, victors and vanquished, are constantly goaded by dissatisfactions, hopes, hatreds. An aggressor can seldom be more than temporarily beaten; if he is whipped another challenger soon arises. In modern times Spain, Sweden, Holland, France, Prussia, Russia, Germany, as well as other nations, have aggressively taken the sword. All have been beaten; aggressors still have arisen. Nor are the temporary victors content with their victories, however just or final the peace seems at the time. There are always new worlds to conquer if not old ones to retain and exploit.

Men seem never to learn that their problems can not be solved by either killing or punishing. Though it may be necessary to incarcerate a criminal, or take away the arms of an aggressor, that, we ought to learn soon, does not stop the desire of men to commit crimes anew. For the peace settlements of the past the best that can be said is simply this: they have allowed men only temporary respites from hell, never to get far above it. The Viennas, Berlins, Versailles, conceived, as they have been, as the final will of God or the devil or as the manifest destiny of this or that race, were doomed by this very finality to be less permanent than the ink in which they have been written.

In all this thinking about final and lasting peace there has been more than one fatal error. There is no way either to crush or to elevate a people forever. However high sounding and idealistic the principles of a peace, there is no way to provide that they will be valued for all time or even for ten or twenty years. Some principles have survived through the centuries, it is fortunately true. Some ways of thought and action do benefit mankind as a whole more than

others. Honesty, humaneness, courage, justice, respect for the individual, marks of all of men's great civilizations, represent high and worthy ideals nowhere entirely forgotten. But honesty and all the other high ideals are not enough to settle new controversies which always arise out of man's strivings as long as he breathes, hopes, hates.

Nor are these ideals, strangely enough, the possession of any one people. A German may be acting honestly and courageously when he fights for what we think to be despicable ends, and, propaganda mad or not, he thinks he is dying that his kind may fulfill their high destiny. A Japanese shows little respect for enemy individuals, but he, like the German, has beautiful phrases which inspire him as an individual to what he thinks are worthy and magnificent deeds. The conflicts between men which forever arise never lack for ideals; perhaps they arise precisely because different men have differing hopes, aspirations, dreams. Even the gangster Hitler has said he believes (and undoubtedly he has honestly deluded himself) in a "just" peace, a German-imposed peace, of course, but nevertheless peace.

But the phrases of one decade are insufficient, inadequate to solve the problems arising out of the changed conditions of the decades succeeding. When the peacemakers, their heads in Olympus, have thought they were making a safe and just solution that could continue to exist for a hundred or a thousand years, they have not realized that such a peace settlement was synonymous with death, would if enforced, be death itself, and was hence as unworkable as any scheme which denies life to men.

If Bismarck and Disraeli believed in 1878 that they had made a lasting "honest peace for Europe," everywhere other peoples believed the opposite. The Balkan nationalities, each wanting more territory, more independence, felt thwarted. France, burning to regain her prominence in Europe, wanted Tunis, Indo-China, Madagascar, to redress in part the balance of power in her favor. Balked in the north by the German colossus, Austria never ceased trying to fulfill her *Drang-nach-Osten*. Russia still hoped for dominance over all the Slavs and an ice-free port, and Italy to make the Adriatic, if not the Mediterranean, her lake. Britain wanted more red upon the map of the earth. And an ambitious monarch in Germany was soon to overthrow the "pilot" who was satisfied when he created simply a European and not a great colonial empire.

As it was in 1878, so also was it in 1919. The vast settlements made in Franch that year, Wilson proudly stated, would bring a new freedom for all mankind. But all the victorious statesmen, cynics like Clémenceau excepted, forgot that some Germans would never admit final defeat, that Italy was disappointed in her war aims, that British liberals and Tories alike would soon wish for German recovery for reasons of trade, that France, fearing for her security, would like to see Germany further crushed, that the Bolsheviks would never rest as long as the status quo of 1919 continued. Worst of all, they did not, in fact could not, then comprehend the emerging social and economic forces (for example, the aftermath of 1929) which would wreck any static political arrangements. Versailles was thought to make safe nineteenth-century democracy when, indeed, it was already gone.

PEACE CANNOT BE STATIC

IF THESE things be true, and they can hardly be denied, are we then fooling ourselves when we hope for a better, less warlike world? Must we accept the bitter view that man is a hopelessly pugnacious animal, that peace is only a pause in war? Must we reluctantly come to the chauvinistic philosophy that one nation must inevitably force its control upon others, that since it had better be "us" instead of "they," we must destroy anybody who differs from us, and the sooner the better?

Here again is a grievous error in understanding. Since peace settlements of the past have not held firm, it is concluded they never will. Peace in the sense of non-violence has been confused with peace in the sense of no change and no activity. Of course the latter has been impossible; but this does not at all prove that non-violence is also impossible. It only proves that a peace in the sense of any final, lasting, conclusive settlement is as absurd as war, in fact always ends in war.

Living men are never at complete and final peace with themselves or with others, even with their own wives and children, yet seldom do they commit acts of violence against their own. Peace defined as non-violence with constant readjustment of controversies which arise in the modern world out of differing national aspirations, economic interests, races, and classes, is not yet a utopian impossibility. But peace in the sense of the imposition of the status quo of any time, no matter how lofty the ideals imposed, has never been and never will be so long as death spares

any of homo sapiens. If mankind is looking for a safe peace which can be embodied in a treaty lasting forever, it had better try another world.

During the last long armistice the basic trouble was not Versailles, though that was unwise enough. Rather it was men's belief that it guaranteed something or other that was everlasting. Before Hitler recklessly loosed his Luftwaffe no one really tried to remake Europe to meet (in a saner way) the necessities and desires of men living not in 1910 but in the 1920's and 1930's. The explosive forces arising out of idle capital, unemployment, and poverty as well as ignorant racialism and belligerent nationalism were never squarely met or even diverted. They exploded, bringing dictatorship and war, inevitably.

PROVISION FOR PEACEFUL CHANGE

FOR the future the inferences are plain. There is no unvarying formula for peace. None can be suggested here or elsewhere. Peace is dynamic or it does not exist. Non-violence does not mean non-action.

Whatever the treaties, leagues, unions, federations at the end of the violent phase of the present struggle, the crucial issue of peace or war will arise again ten, fifteen, or twenty years later—unless the statesmen and the peoples behind

them continually adjust boundaries, trade, resources, provide mass consumption for mass production, and modify political institutions to care for any new problems that may, and will, arise. Any so-called permanent arrangements made in the heat of passion in 1945-6, or whenever the present firing stops, will become invalid before the historians can analyze them. Any attempt to impose upon the world of the 1950's the economic, social, and political conceptions, however idealistic, of the 1920's and 30's will be as doomed as Hitler's thousand years of rule by a "master race." There is no panacea contemporary men can propose nor any security they can find. The moment they think they have safety, that moment it is gone. We can not get an everlasting peace by this or that kind of treaty or league any more than the aged can regain their youth by thinking about it.

War is detestable. Its abolition is a necessity if civilization is to survive. Democracy is good. Its spread ardently to be desired. But an everlasting, secure peace, whether the world is democratic or not, is impossible. Only if the congresses, commissions, conferences of the future realize this, and constantly adjust and change all existing arrangements, will international warfare be of the dim remembered past, not of the ever-living present.

We have evolved here in the New World a system of international relationships which constitutes perhaps the highest achievement in the sphere of practical international living which civilized man has so far created. From the historical standpoint it is very recent indeed, but it has grown, gradually perhaps but nevertheless steadily, throughout the period of the individual life of the democracies of the Americas. It is a system in which the smallest state is just as free to determine its own destiny as the largest state. It is a system where the smallest state feels just as secure as the largest state, because of its knowledge that its independence and integrity are a matter of vital concern to its more powerful neighbors, and because of its assurance that should its liberties be jeopardized by aggression coming from without the Western Hemisphere, its more powerful neighbors will take the action necessary to repel that danger.

Every region of the world possesses its own peculiar problems, its own special advantages, and its own inherent difficulties. We hear much of the age-old rivalries which have persisted in Europe and in other quarters of the globe. But I think that we of the Americas can say that if 22 independent democracies such as those which occupy North, Central, and South America—of different races, of different languages, and of different origins—can achieve the measure of progress which we now have achieved, towards a peaceful and humane relationship, and towards profitable economic cooperation, that same form of relationship can be achieved in all regions of the world. . . (From a speech by Sumner Welles. Delivered at the Convocation of the University of Toronto, February 26, 1943).

Technology and Liberty

Samuel M. Levin

WHATEVER ideas one may entertain regarding the causes of the world tumult, there can be no question of the commanding position of technology in modern culture. There is the impressive fact that the last three decades of our history, though marked by political retrogression climaxed by a savage assault on democratic institutions, have witnessed an unprecedented speeding-up of technological innovation. The very war, designed by the Axis powers to cut at the roots of human liberty, has enormously stimulated technical progress. It is natural, under these circumstances, that some thought be directed to the relationship between the modern technological setup and the freedoms interwoven with the culture of democratic society.

The highlights of this problem present themselves under five heads: (1) implications of the concentration of economic power; (2) insecurity; (3) increasing complexity, especially in the economic and political spheres; (4) the effort to attain maximum technical efficiency for war; (5) the lag between the technological front and the political. What, in the light of these developments and conditions, are the prospects for safeguarding human liberty? Is its very survival threatened, or is the arena of liberty in the long-term sense, say in terms of such ideals as freedom from want and fear, or Vice-President Wallace's "century of the common man," a widening one?

THE CONCENTRATION OF ECONOMIC POWER

THOUGH the advent of large-scale enterprise, trusts, holding-companies, and other devices furthering the end of concentration is due to a multiplicity of economic causes, the technological background is all-important. Inventions, industrial research, up-to-date techniques of management, and improved mechanisms for commu-

nication and transportation entwined with market, speculative, promotional, and profit-making processes underlie the modern trend to centralization. It is this "concentration of wealth and power," which President Roosevelt described in 1936 as "a menace to the social system as well as the economic system which we call American democracy."

But the existence of such problem in our society is not necessarily an augury of doleful consequences to the cause of liberty, provided we clearly understand the true nature of the issue confronting us and fearlessly resort to appropriate remedies. Experience in the depression of the thirties and knowledge of how fanatical and ambitious demagogues prey on mass discontents should suffice to drive home the fact that the mere right to civil and political liberties is not sufficient to shield the morale of labor from the corroding influence of a sense of wrong, inferiority, and pessimism. Such right must be reinterpreted and redefined in terms of the new conditions, dynamic factors, and mass problems precipitated by modern technics. Our democratic viewpoints must be extended into a wider system that embraces economic democracy. Economic democracy has in fact been defined as "an economic order which would make possible the realization of the purposes or values which political democracy can no longer realize by itself."¹

It is not at all certain that our liberties can be maintained without measures to bring about an effective curbing or redistribution of economic power. From this standpoint President Roosevelt was undoubtedly right in pointing out in his message to Congress of January 6, 1941, that, in addition to the preservation of civil liberties, it is such things as "equality of opportunity . . . jobs for those who can work, security for those who need it," and "the ending of special privilege for the few," that constitute "the foundations of a healthy and strong democracy." But the implementing of this type of program presupposes not only new governmental initiative

What are the prospects for liberty and democracy in a world of technology, concentration of power, personal insecurity, and total war? A professor of economics in Wayne University points out several hopeful trends and policies.

¹ C. B. Macpherson, "The Meaning of Economic Democracy," *University of Toronto Quarterly*, July 1942, p. 404.

and responsibility, but a free, wide-awake, and creative labor movement.

From the standpoint of current needs the conclusion follows that the policy of strengthening labor unionism by such a law as the National Labor Relations Act was a step in the right direction. It is significant that the function of collective bargaining which so crucially affects wages, hours, grievances, working conditions, seniority, etc., and which rests on the idea of the practicability of joint relationships between employers and workers' representatives in the industrial field, is now backed by a new kind of franchise, the right of men and women as workers to cast a ballot in their industries for the choice of collective-bargaining committees. In this wise, as well as by protection against unfair labor practices, the law widens the workers' freedom of choice and self-expression. It creates, in the words of J. Warren Madden, first chairman of the National Labor Relations Board, "a new liberty in a world where the old liberties were being taken away."

The statement has been made that there is a "conflict between political liberty and economic equality," and that the difficulties arising from this conflict "are inherent in democracy under the technical condition of modern civilization."² It is true that these technical conditions, developing into such problems as industrial accidents, mass unemployment, business integration, slums, and urban proletariats, inevitably lead to an enlargement of the functions of the state, and to an "enhanced complexity of the machinery of government." But in a society with a knowledge and tradition of freedom this need not necessarily culminate in an unchecked strait-jacket authoritarianism. To the extent that certain laws help to banish the fear of want or economic oppression, they help to sustain liberty and to enlarge its field.

Even involvement in the war, with all the attendant measures of economic unification and expansion of governmental power, has not impaired the structure or quenched the spirit of representative government in either England or America. There has been no repudiation of the freedom of association, of equality before the law, or of the right to vote and to criticize. Even where the stern exigencies of war have forced some curtailments of traditional prerogatives, as, for example, in the production, marketing, or

consumption of goods, there is no warrant for the conclusion that these restrictions will outlast the emergency.

INSECURITY

IT IS significant, though not surprising, that the President has designated "security for those who need it" as a part of the function of democratic society and "freedom from want" as one of the four freedoms. Freedom from want is, of course, only a part of a broader domain of security which includes moral, cultural, national, and collective security. But it betokens the need for some measure of protection against economic hazards such as unemployment, old age, industrial accidents, sickness, and various types of disability or dependency that under modern industrial conditions have assumed a mass character; against hazards that can not be coped with, successfully, by personal effort.

The century characterized by great technological progress, enhancement of industrial efficiency, development of scientific management, and an extraordinary reduction of death rates has also witnessed not only an emergence of mass hazards but their intensification. Economic forces seem to be making for increased insecurity. "In fact, the great danger of the long-run trend of unemployment is that it may increase," Alvin H. Hansen wrote a few years ago. Similarly, John G. Winant, first head of the Social Security Board, has declared that such things as the relative decline of self-sufficient agriculture, the growth of division of labor, the interdependence of markets, and increasing rapidity of change have accentuated the insecurity of the individual in the modern economic system.

The problem is far from simple. On the one side there is the demoralization incident to economic uncertainties that undermine standards, interrupt the rhythm of orderly existence, raise the specter of destitution as against the hope of economic betterment, and awaken in the minds of workers resentment and mistrust. The situation takes on a darker hue when visioned against the background of our mighty and resplendent industrialism, unprecedented technical achievements, and the growing power of a small minority of the economically strong and overruling. It is not at all improbable that some men may be willing to trade freedom for a promise of security. The modern dictator-minded demagogue does, indeed, use this type of promise as a bait to his hook.

² William E. Rappard, *The Crisis of Democracy* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938), p. 264.

It is also true that there is hazard in an overdose of security. One is reminded of Arnold Toynbee's statement of more than a half century ago: "It is a great law of social development that the movement from slavery to freedom is also a movement from security to insecurity of maintenance."³ But how determine and attain the balance between freedom and security? There is no doubt that the growth of economic freedom, under the awakening conditions that prevailed in England from the fifteenth century to the nineteenth, upset the stability that characterized serfdom or medieval guilds. Liberty was enlarging its domain at the expense of security. Nor was there, on the part of the people of this country, any interest in social-security legislation in the expansive days of the nineteenth century, when abundant opportunities for self-help and betterment beckoned on all sides.

But conditions have changed. The distortion in the midst of economic upheaval of the normal life patterns of multitudes of working men and women and their dependents, the growing seriousness of these disturbances, and the persistent exploitation of the insecurity issue by the foes of the democratic way of life in behalf of fascist tyranny have magnified this problem into one of major challenge to our society. Sir William Beveridge calls his recently published plan for social security "part of a policy of a national minimum" to insure "that no one in Britain willing to work while he can is without income sufficient to meet at all times the essential needs of himself and his family." There is every reason to believe that in the period ahead social security will be used as a principal technique to bulwark the democratic order.

COMPLEXITY

IN THE quieter days of the English Victorian period, Herbert Spencer propounded the thesis of an "ever increasing complexity" as a characteristic of advancing societies and as a preponderating feature of evolution. It is certain that as a result of such factors as science, invention, the elaboration of the technical arts, interdependence, widening of markets, and the breakdown of customary ideas, habits, and life patterns, our world has become bewilderingly complex.

The awareness of increasing complexity is an aspect of every nook and corner of experience:

³ Arnold Toynbee, *Lectures on the Industrial Revolution of the Eighteenth Century in England* (London: Longmans Green, 1908. New ed.), p. 76.

in industry, social organization and relationships, the realm of thought, in government and administration. Secretary Wickard speaks of "the new-complexity of agriculture," and Alfred P. Sloan, of the General Motors Corporation, inquires as to whether our types of leadership can "meet the challenge of the constantly increasing complications of the various forces comprising our civilization." President Hutchins, of the University of Chicago, underscores the fact that the "business of citizenship in a free community is growing more complicated every day." The Spanish philosopher Ortega y Gasset even suggests the hypothesis that the European mass-man is a primitive, a barbarian, in relation "to the complex civilization into which he has been born."

Among the unmistakable results of this process of complication is the tendency to substitute, in many situations, group policy, attitudes, and needs for individual action and initiative, as shown, for example, in the enhanced importance of cooperatives, labor organizations, trade associations, and other autonomous groups. In its broader aspects this development leads to an extension of governmental power, a centralization of governmental control, and a widening of administrative authority. These effects, incident to inevitable interconnections and interrelationships between individuals, groups, and institutional entities, may even be accentuated by what has been called "a longing for authority" felt by the numerous individuals, in our society, who, dispirited by the turmoil which engulfs them and weighed down by their helplessness and lack of understanding, seek an easy way out.

To William E. Rappard, the "relative advantages of autocracy" and the baffling difficulties confronting democracy under the modern conditions of increasingly complex governmental administration constitute "the supreme political problem of the age and the most dangerous threat for the future of popular government."⁴ It is not by any means clear, however, that the "need for authority on top and of discipline below" signifies the tipping of the scales in favor of autocracy. The new mechanisms of administration are indispensable to facilitate the adjustment of society to unfamiliar situations, to the economic strains, uncertainties, and dislocations incident to an era of economic change. Perhaps the answer is found in the view expressed by John Dewey. Liberty, he holds, "signifies liberation from material insecurity and

⁴ William E. Rappard, *op. cit.*, p. 262.

from the coercions and repressions that prevent multitudes from participation in the vast cultural resources that are at hand." And the achievement of this liberation means that "organized society must use its powers to establish the conditions under which the mass of individuals can possess actual as distinct from merely legal liberty." It is administration that provides the legal machinery to protect and satisfy the new claims under such rights as those provided by National Labor Relations Act, the Securities Act, the Wages and Hours Law, and unemployment compensation. Administrative government is, as William O. Douglas, now Justice of the Supreme Court, has declared, "democracy's way of dealing with the overcomplicated social and economic problems of the day."

The complication of the tasks of government, to be sure, has precipitated many a problem due to bureaucratic routine, inertia, lack of trained personnel, and new and as yet unsolved questions of administrative structure, authority, and function. All this, however, does not warrant the conclusion that the growth of administration in a dynamic order is necessarily inimical to democracy. Administrative techniques lend themselves to improvement. The last decade has witnessed greater recourse to better standards, simplification, and democratization in the administrative field as evidenced in the progress of civil service, in the voluntary formulation by government, labor, and management of manpower-stabilization plans for divers industrial areas, and in the use of the tripartite system of representation for the choice of personnel.

It is noteworthy with regard to this problem that the violent reaction against the liberal democratic ideology did not originate in the Anglo-American domain where the technological forces that tend to a greater complication of life have had the widest scope to express themselves.

If, as has been pointed out, anti-intellectualism can serve the cause of relieving "the nervous tension engendered by the complexities and high tempo of modern life," if the masses, oppressed by unknown factors, lend themselves to simplifications offered by emotional frenzies, beguiling utopias, and the enthronement of force, it is significant that the public mind of England and the United States has not succumbed to these taints. On the contrary, the citizenry of these countries are in the forefront of the struggle to vindicate anew the worthwhileness of the democratic way of life.

The increasing complexity of life is not without its risks, e.g., ignorance, indifference, and the disruptions, fears, and uncertainties instigated by an environment subject to rapid change. With increased complexity there is greater likelihood of maladjustment in the economic system and a greater liability to miscalculation and error of judgment. The multiplicity of factors and the magnitude of the forces that spend themselves in a cyclical convulsion like that of 1929 create a situation that is seemingly unfathomable even to the experts. It is not at all unlikely that, as the process of economic decomposition spreads out in widening circles, certain individuals and groups turn with a heightened interest in the sure answers, mysticisms, and panaceas of the rabble-rouser.

But complexity, as Charles Horton Cooley rightly pointed out, is not inconsistent with freedom. "Even now our American democracy," he wrote, "as regards its principles is perhaps the simplest large scale system of life, as in its activities it is the most complex that the world has seen." Though society has felt the impact of increasing complexity, a parallel movement in the direction of greater simplification is discernible in such developments as governmental and administrative consolidations, the unscrambling of giant holding companies, the techniques of standardization, and the formulation, in the scientific realm, of general theory and law. It is to be remembered that man's progress in the historic period has been cultural and not organic. Man does not augment his brain power in a biological sense, but increases his knowledge, perfects instruments of manipulation and control, and draws on the resources that stem from individual and group intelligence.

The period characterized by a tendency to a more complex life has brought with it many benefits in terms of sanitation, better standards of living, increased longevity, advancement of science, and more genuine social consciousness—the very advantages that have featured the progress of modern democratic society. As against the growing complication, there are the potentialities of education, theoretical and experimental science, research, management, and organization, to draw on. There is also the human attribute of common sense to fall back to. Truly, it is the understanding of the common man, an understanding molded in the atmosphere of freedom, that constitutes the rock and the fortress of American democracy.

TECHNICS AND THE WAR EVIL

THE scientific lore, the inventiveness, the mechanical and organizational devices that have been so effectively used to increase man's power of production lend themselves equally well to purposes of war as to those of peace. It is this technically minded approach, broadened to include psychological maneuvers, that has brought forth the fascist-nazi blueprints for all-out regimentation and dictatorship, evolving into organisms of tyranny which seem immune to the historically familiar popular uprisings that have featured European history in the past. But a number of special considerations have tended to greatly aggravate the seriousness of the menace of modern technics to our civilization: (1) Destruction has always been easier than construction. This is especially true under conditions of total war, exposure to air offensives, and the ability of the attacking country, in pursuance of *blitzkrieg* methods, to spread devastation on an immense scale and with unprecedented speed. (2) There is the fact that in terms of the potentialities of modern war apparatus and war strategy, our world has shrunk to a small fraction of what it was a century ago. (3) The perfection of auxiliary fifth-column techniques, such as those used by the Nazis, to soften, bewilder, and disorganize the population of a neighboring or even distant country, destined by the aggressor state, for occupancy or subjugation.

The experience of two world conflagrations in a short period of one generation, with their immense, incredible havoc, is an indication of the size of the problem facing our society.⁵

ORGANIZATION FOR WORLD PEACE

FROM the standpoint of guiding principles, helpful in the formulation of policy to shield mankind from the catastrophe of total war, certain facts that stem from the technological situation present themselves to our view. Of outstanding importance is the economic, and cultural interdependence of various parts of the world which makes exchanges of goods, services, and

⁵ Thus the ability of the Axis powers to give themselves a head start of approximately a decade in the technical implementation of their war plans has spelled so great an advantage to them in terms of war potential as to confront our system of democratic liberties with the most serious threat it has ever had to contend against. It has dragged the United States into the vortex of a total and global struggle, despite the fact that a quarter of a century has not yet elapsed since the harrowing experiences of World War I.

ideas, in other words, a constructive and natural cooperation, inevitable. Technological developments have also made possible the consummation of practical measures to advance the well-being of the masses throughout the world in terms of adequacy of food, housing, better labor standards, and economic security. Finally there is the fact that the contraction of our spatial world makes the old defensive tactic of isolationism illusory, whereas the power to destroy has grown to unheard-of proportions.

Under these circumstances the mere "world-wide reduction of armaments," proposed by the President's fourth freedom, does not suffice. Armament reduction must needs be reinforced with a supernational organization vested with power to limit national sovereignty and to plan and execute measures for world peace. Though the picture of contemporary society reveals a complicated web of relationships that binds the regions of the world together into a new compact and close-knit structure, politically we have failed to adjust ourselves to this type of new order. Unless we get rid of the political lag, in terms of effective cooperation for collective security, the full benefit of an envisioned victory over the Axis powers will not have been gained.

To be sure, there are stumbling-blocks in the way, e.g., the deeply ingrained nationalistic feelings in the small as well as large countries, the suspicion on the part of national governments of any attempts to abridge their sovereignty, the very recognition in the Atlantic Charter of the sanctity of "sovereign rights," the extraordinary difficulty of getting a consensus of opinion on a plan for world union vested with real power, and the opposition of powerful elements still tinged with isolationist sentiment who either look upon such a step as a departure from tradition and unwarranted, or who fear repercussions on their vested interests.

Such hindrances notwithstanding, the responsibility for thought and action rests on the government and peoples of the United Nations. The League of Nations might have had a much better success than it did, save for the fact that, as Sumner Wells declared on May 30, of last year: "We were blind to what constituted our enlightened self-interest. . . ." We must not be guilty of such blindness in this second crisis. Rather we must strive with heart and soul to establish a strong, effective and enduring organization for world peace, and thus vindicate the hope of man in the possibility of a free world.

Global Geography in the Elementary Grades

Agnes F. Garrels

GLOBAL warfare has made global geography a functioning experience for each of us. How frequently we pore over maps in newspapers, periodicals, or atlases to locate Casablanca, Oran, Attu, Guadalcanal, and numerous other places in current news! As friends and relatives move to defense bases and combat areas, we conjure up possibilities of their probable destinations.

It is easy to understand how the average adult American is in the process of developing a geographical point of view because of the war. The same is true of the children whose interests are also broadening under the impact of global conflict. Fathers, uncles, brothers, cousins, and friends are numbered among the fighting forces. They move by plane, train, or ship to distant places. Letters are headed "Somewhere in the Near East," or "On an island in the southwest Pacific." Current radio broadcasts and news items encourage children to make frequent use of globes, wall maps, and textbook maps.

We know that many problems in the varied aspects of the war are primarily geographic. For modern geography is both a descriptive and an explanatory science dealing with man's adjustments to the physical earth. Its peculiar functions are to interpret the interrelationships between the cultural patterns and factors of the natural environment; to explain why men use the earth and its resources as they do; to study the advantages and disadvantages of specific regions for the groups of people living there; to explain man's distribution and his utilization of available resources, or the reasons for his failure to use them.

The war brings new prominence to the study of geography. Use of war interests in developing geographical understandings needed in peace or war, is illustrated with special reference to Africa by an assistant professor of social science in the Wilson Teachers College, Washington, D.C.

THE WAR AS A BASIC THEME

TEACHERS of children in the elementary grades have long realized that any functional geography program must be a part of the actual living experiences and interests of their pupils. The traditional organization of subject matter as it was outlined in the older courses of study has been discarded in many places because this organization seemed didactic, and frequently was far removed from interests and living experiences of elementary-grade children. How fortunate are teachers today in planning their geography programs with girls and boys vitally interested in the whole world!

A progressive teacher in the elementary grades could utilize a basic theme such as "Seeing the world with the United States armed forces." Children would naturally be interested in many diverse areas, each with its distinctive geographic personality. Little-known places now serve as air or naval bases, or as they control vital shipping lanes, or as they produce essential raw materials. Global conflict might lead to a study of any one of the following places where United States forces are based—Iceland, Greenland, North Africa, England, Equatorial Africa, Alaska, Australia, the Near East, India, China, or New Guinea.

The teacher's responsibility as a guide in the selection of the regions for study is great. It is essential so to select subject matter that it will contribute to a functioning knowledge of the interrelations existing between man and his natural environment. Because of their interest in the war, children might choose to study regions in a haphazard fashion. Unless emphasis is placed upon major understandings which are basic to the ability of children to think geographically, little permanent value results.

FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA

LET us consider definitely a few possible areas which might contribute to geographic understandings which will so function. The

landing of some American forces in Brazzaville on the Congo River, and their probable activities there in road-building and in the expansion of airports, stimulates an interest in French Equatorial Africa. The questions naturally arise, "How will a member of the United States armed forces adjust to conditions in this part of Africa?" "Why is French Equatorial Africa of importance to the United Nations?"

The very name of the area indicates an aspect of its geographic individuality as an equatorial region, although the entire country does not lie in the equatorial rain forest. It might, however, be studied as representative of regions in very low latitudes where throughout the year hot, wet, summer weather prevails. The dense tropical rain forest which results from heavy precipitation renders travel on land most difficult. Therefore man has turned to the rivers as arteries of trade and as highways of commerce. From the abundant timber natives have constructed dugouts, rafts, and canoes for their use on the rivers.

In order to supply their food requirements, crops are grown in forest clearings. Definite seasons of planting and harvesting are not outstanding, inasmuch as rainfall is always adequate, and temperatures uniformly high. This abundant heat and moisture presents problems for the native agriculturist. As soon as the original vegetation is removed a luxuriant growth of weeds develops. Much of the soil is the red lateritic type which is quickly leached in the abundant rainfall. It also has a tendency to become infertile under constant cultivation, and the inhabitants then search for new lands to exploit in their primitive fashion.

News stories reaching us from this part of Africa indicate that a "Burma Road," or roads, are developing in part from automobile roads in French Equatorial Africa. Some of these new strategic roads reputedly wind east to Khartoum, which is linked to Cairo by rail, steamer, and highway. Children may be led to observe through pictured landscapes of the region how difficult such roads have been to build. Where are laborers obtained for such work? How can the workers endure the oppressive heat of the equatorial jungles? What insect pests are a menace to the health, as well as the comfort, of the workers? How can dangers of possible inundations be overcome? Will the lateritic soils hold up in this climate under constant use by heavy trucks? How are the trees felled and moved from the forest? How does the geographic location of

French Equatorial Africa explain the importance of its highways today?

Elementary-grade pupils will naturally want to know why uniformly high temperatures and heavy precipitation throughout the year are usual in equatorial regions. This offers an opportunity for a study of sun-behavior in such places, with its consequent effects upon the seasons, climates, and types of vegetation. Man's efforts to adjust his needs for food, clothing, shelter, travel, out-of-door work, and play to these conditions of the natural environment develop fundamental geographic concepts with children. In later studies they have opportunity to evidence their ability to apply this understanding in interpretations of other equatorial regions.

For example, other areas where United States forces have been working and fighting lie in very low latitudes where the natural environmental conditions are somewhat similar. What difficulties because of such physical factors have our men encountered in numerous islands of the southwest Pacific, of which the Solomons, New Caledonia, and New Guinea are typical? Problems such as those which face our armed forces in these places may well serve as problems for classroom study in the elementary grades. Real appreciation is thus developed of the handicaps to be overcome in areas where even the warm, humid, and stagnant air is unfavorable to human vitality.

Growing out of such a study as has been briefly suggested would be the development of self-activity by the pupils. This factor would be inevitable in such a modern approach as children raise questions, collect data, and reason for themselves concerning probable relationships between the natural environment and the cultural pattern. Accurate and clear thinking results as they check their inferences and summarize their findings.

NORTH AFRICAN DESERTS

TO CONTINUE the suggested journey around the world with our armed forces necessitates much guidance by the teacher in determining the sequence of possible units. The previous experiences of the children and world events will both be taken into account. Where feasible, however, it would seem advisable to move from a very low latitude region to one in the middle latitudes. In this way children will become conscious of significant transitions that occur as one moves from the low to higher latitudes, or vice versa. Places north and south of

the equator present varying aspects of sun-behavior with consequent variations in seasons, climates, and vegetation types.

Because of the approximate geographical location of French Equatorial Africa to the Deserts of French West Africa and Libya, the latter unit of geographical material might be developed next. This section of Africa is one where public interest has long been focused because of the military campaigns. Children's interest in it is keen today because of war developments.

Desert—bare, hard and stony, dry, desolate, furnace-hot by day, and often near-freezing at night! Lack of water, lack of shade, too much sun, sometimes too much rain—all of these features menace the men who have to endure desert warfare. The desert wind is one of the worst features, threatening to suffocate those in its path as it blows the grains of sand sharp as flint in their faces.

Popular misconceptions have led most adults to envision all deserts as areas of sand dunes. Yet in this part of Africa are wide and rocky stretches of barren lands in addition to sandy sections. Rocks and worn pebbles, with hardly a vestige of life, stretch for uncounted miles. In other places sharp rocks shift beneath the traveler's feet in his attempt to traverse the land. Sandstorms frequently rage for days, or weeks.

By toiling from one oasis to another traders have from the earliest times established well-defined caravan routes. At some oases groups of people have gathered to raise their irrigated crops. Market towns have emerged; and there nomadic herders could obtain food and supplies. Today the caravan routes are utilized to some extent in road-building; and these roads are of untold importance in global warfare.

Herders in such arid regions need to move constantly, since herbage for their camels, goats, and sheep is scanty, and supplies of water are widely separated. Wandering herdsmen roam over countless miles in their search for food and water for their animals. Thus two contrasting population groups are found in the deserts—a sedentary group clustered more densely near the oases, and a nomadic group, smaller in numbers, covering far more land as the band migrates with flocks and herds.

Let us consider what problems facing soldiers in such arid wastelands may be used as the basis for geography learnings in the elementary classroom. The question of water supply is paramount. How is it obtained and transported? It has been suggested by some writers that the

minimum daily ration per soldier should be half a gallon. Multiply this by the number of men engaged in battle, add the amount needed for vehicles, and the figures become enormous.

For years a French army regulation is said to have forbidden French soldiers in African deserts to pitch camp overnight in the wadies. What is the reason for this rule? Elementary children may need to do considerably research to solve this problem. Why do the wadies, entirely without water most of the year, become torrents of muddy water filled with debris after a sudden and heavy desert downpour? Just how do desert floods injure irrigation systems and transportation facilities? And why do regions as arid as deserts ever have floods? What relation does the sparse vegetation have to rainfall and floods?

FUNCTIONING OUTCOMES

ELEMENTARY-GRADE children as they search for answers to such questions can appreciate the difficulties man has had in adjusting in lands where handicaps have been so great. They will then begin to appreciate that in their own communities people have not had to face some of these problems. Or in some localities pupils may find some aspects of adjustments in the Saharan or Libyan deserts similar to those in their own environments. In the arid and semi-arid states of our own land the question of water-supply irrigation problems, and sudden floods are also outstanding. The geography class provides many opportunities to gain insight into the problems of other peoples; and to discover that in remote regions people are engaged in jobs similar to our own—providing food, clothing, and shelter. Children may also appreciate the fact that soldiers are training for desert warfare in American desert environments.

Pictures, maps, current news stories, and articles in periodicals along the lines suggested above are now appearing constantly. The alert teacher is finding a wealth of reliable material of high geographic quality available for building understandings of the varied regions now so important in global war. As these different materials are used in conjunction with classroom globes, maps, texts, and collateral readings, children develop increasing skill in their use. Radio broadcasts, newsreels, and the daily newspaper are also familiar sources for additional information requiring special techniques for their use, and adding to the geographic learnings which children will carry into the larger world to enrich their living.

Notes and News

Middle States Council

At its annual spring meeting in Washington on April 16 and 17, the Middle States Council for the Social Studies elected the following officers for the coming year: Jeannette P. Nichols, Swarthmore, Pennsylvania, president; Erling M. Hunt, Columbia University, first vice-president; Arthur C. Bining, University of Pennsylvania, second vice-president; Paul O. Carr, Wilson Teachers College, secretary; Robert H. Reid, Garden City High School, treasurer; Morris Wolf, Girard College, editor of the *Proceedings*; and Hall Bartlett, Garden City High School, and Ann Whitener, McKinley High School, Washington, directors.

The Middle States Council for the Social Studies, formerly the Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers, has recently affiliated with the National Council for the Social Studies. The Middle States Council, working in cooperation with the National Council and with local affiliated groups, will devote its efforts to the advancement of the professional interests of social studies teachers in every type of educational institution from the elementary school through the university in the middle states region.

Dues in the Middle States Council are \$1.00 per year. Annual dues in the National Council are \$3.00. However, joint membership may be secured for \$3.75 by sending this amount to Robert H. Reid, treasurer, Garden City High School, Garden City, New York.

The *Proceedings* of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies, which will be published in September, will include the conference papers in full or in part of the Washington meeting, the main theme of which was "Problems of the Coming Peace." All members will receive the *Proceedings*. Others may secure copies at \$1.00 each by writing to Morris Wolf, Girard College, Philadelphia.

(Paul O. Carr)

Westchester County

The Westchester County Social Studies Association was one year old last month, at which time its officers announced that a membership of nearly two hundred members had been attained—

almost double the goal set. The membership drive was directed by Keith Holt, treasurer.

The Association's spring meeting, to which school administrators of the county have been invited to join with the social studies teachers, will be a luncheon at the Roger Smith Hotel, White Plains, on May 8. Erling M. Hunt of Columbia University will speak on "The Social Studies for the Post-War World." (H. C. Atyeo)

Connecticut

The annual meeting of the Connecticut Social Studies Teachers' Association was held at Hartford on March 27. Richard Stanley of West Hartford urged teachers to adjust their social studies programs to wartime needs in his address on "Twelve Needed Emphases in the Social Studies." John Fitzgerald of Wethersfield described, with the aid of lantern slides, his experience in converting an "old-fashioned high school classroom" into a well-equipped work-room which is now called the "History Laboratory." Richard B. Scandrett, Jr. emphasized that *all* the people in a democracy must have a share in determining the international policies of their government. His topic was "Dynamic Peace." Mr. Scandrett is chairman of the Committee on Labor, Employment, and Social Security of the American Bar Association.

Officers for 1943-44 were elected: Palmer P. Howard, New Britain, president; Richard Stanley, West Hartford, vice-president; Hattie Osten, New Britain, secretary; Ruth Crockett, Bristol, treasurer; directors, Samuel Meyers of Waterbury, Elden Barbour of New Haven, Harry A. Cohen of Norwich, Frederick Davis of Hartford, Mrs. Julia Bartman of Colchester, and Elizabeth Bridge of Windsor. (Elizabeth Kane)

Central Ohio

The Social Studies Association of Central Ohio has held three meetings during the current academic year, the most recent on March 9. Questions discussed were: What prejudices, racial and religious, are you finding among your students, and how are you handling them? What are you teaching about enemy countries? How is global geography changing your teaching? How is the

crisis through which we are passing changing the teaching of American history? How are you teaching children to assume their obligations? What are you teaching about economics, labor, cooperatives, capitalism, communism, and consumer education? This experience-sharing program, under the chairmanship of Margaret Willis of the Ohio State University School, was held in the University School. The school's new social-education laboratory was formally opened at this time for visitors.

At the March meeting the Social Studies Association of Central Ohio voted to affiliate formally with the National Council for the Social Studies. Jane Cowell of Central High School, Columbus, is president of the Association. Kenneth Povenmire of Mound Junior High School is secretary-treasurer.

(William Van Til)

Sioux City

The Sioux City Council for the Social Studies held a dinner meeting on March 30 to hear an address by Allen Y. King, president of the National Council, on "The Social Studies Mobilize for Victory." J. B. Kuhler, president of the Sioux City Council planned the meeting.

University of Chicago Conference

The Third Conference for Teachers of the Social Sciences in High Schools and Junior Colleges will be held at Ida Noyes Hall, University of Chicago (1212 East 59th Street), July 21, 22, and 23. The topic is "The Post-War World and the Role of the Social Sciences." For programs address Earl S. Johnson, University of Chicago.

Wartime Bulletins

Two National Council bulletins are scheduled for summer publication: *Wartime Social Studies in the Elementary School*, edited by W. Linwood Chase of Boston University, and *Wartime Social Studies in the Secondary School*, edited by Erling M. Hunt of Columbia University. The bulletins follow up *The Social Studies Mobilize for Victory* with specific suggestions for adjustments at various grade levels and in specific subject areas. Several National Council members are cooperating with the editors, each of whom would welcome suggestions or reports of adjustments that have been made.

The price of each bulletin will be 50 cents to members of the National Council, \$1.00 to others, with discounts for quantity orders.

National Council Committees

The National Council for the Social Studies now has seven standing committees instead of eight, as formerly; the Research Committee was discontinued in March. Each member of a standing committee is appointed for a three-year term except in the case of the Public Relations Committee, whose members serve for one year. In the following list, the term of each committee member will end on December 31 of the year given after his name. The membership of the Public Relations Committee will be listed in October.

Academic Freedom

Bessie Pierce, University of Chicago, 1945.
Louise Capen, Newark, New Jersey, 1944.
Merle Curti, University of Wisconsin, 1943.

Audio-Visual Aids

William H. Hartley, Towson, Maryland, chairman, 1944.
Donald Cherry, Redwood City, California, 1944.
Daniel Knowlton, Montclair, New Jersey, 1944.
L. C. Larson, University of Indiana, 1943.
Leland March, Ridgewood, New Jersey, 1945.
Paul Reed, Washington, D. C., 1943.
James Ruffo, New Orleans, Louisiana, 1945.

Civic Education

Hilda Watters, Western Illinois State Teachers College, chairman, 1944.
Phillips Bradley, Queens College, 1943.
Stanley Dimond, Detroit, Michigan, 1945.
Vincent McKivergan, Providence, Rhode Island, 1944.
Charles Merrifield, United States Navy, 1944.
Newton Rodeheaver, United States Navy, 1943.
Harrison Thomas, New York City, 1943.
William Van Til, Ohio State University, 1945.
Howard White, Miami University, 1945.

Curriculum Committee

Howard Wilson, Harvard University, chairman, 1945.
William Alexander, University of Tennessee, 1943.
Paul Hanna, Stanford University, 1943.
Erling M. Hunt, Columbia University, 1945.
Preston James, Washington, D. C., 1943.
Mary Kelty, Washington, D. C., 1944.
Roy A. Price, Syracuse University, 1944.

Nominations

Howard Anderson, Cornell University, chairman, 1944.
Harold Long, Glens Falls, New York, 1945.
Ethel De Marsh, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, 1943.

Publications

Horace Morse, University of Minnesota, chairman, 1944.
Elaine Forsyth, Cornell University, 1945.
Richard Thursfield, Johns Hopkins University, 1943.

Social Education: Binding Cost

The Eggeling Book Bindery, 31 East 10th Street, New York, announces a 15-cent increase in the charge for binding a year's issues of *Social Education*. The cost is now \$1.65 plus postage.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Leonard B. Irwin

Wartime Problems

Safety and Conservation in Wartime (Chicago: Beckley-Cardy Company. 25 cents) is a text booklet suitable for use in high school and upper elementary grades. It explains, by text and picture, what boys and girls can do to aid the war effort on the home front. Prevention of unnecessary loss and waste of materials and health are emphasized. There are sections on conservation of food, rubber, and home appliances, and on ways in which young people may help adult organizations. Included also is a description of the organization of the civilian protection program as set up by the United States Office of Civilian Defense.

Workers and Bosses are Human, by T. R. Carskaden (Public Affairs Committee, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, 10 cents) is No. 76 in the long and valuable series of Public Affairs Pamphlets. It deals with some of the complicated problems of employer-worker relations. Why is the rate of production higher in some plants than in others? What psychological factors must employers consider in their dealings with workers and unions? Why are many employers generous toward labor but hostile to labor unions? What is the future of collective bargaining? Questions like these are discussed and explained.

A very attractive and interesting pamphlet on the work of the automobile industry in the production of war materials is *Teamwork for Victory* (Automotive Council for War Production, New Center Building, Detroit. Free). It describes in a readable manner the accomplishments of the industry in transferring its resources to the making of military equipment, and in developing new techniques which should be of importance in peacetime. The pamphlet is illustrated with excellent photographs.

The OPA has recently issued several folders and pamphlets particularly for the use of teachers, schools, and other educational agencies. Included in the group are: (1) *Rent Control*, a leaflet explaining its purpose, value, and legal

aspects; (2) *How You Can Help Keep Wartime Prices Down*, a well-presented explanation of the consumer's part in keeping price ceilings intact, and his rights against dishonest merchants; (3) *How Can We Make Rationing Work For Us?* a discussion leaflet for teachers and speakers; and (4) *Selected References*, a mimeographed reading list for teachers and pupils. Any of these may be obtained from the Office of Price Administration, Department of Information, Educational Services Branch, Washington.

An interesting periodical leaflet which comments on rationing problems and OPA activities with the critical eye of the harassed consumer is *Bread and Butter* (Consumers Union, 17 Union Square West, New York. Published weekly. \$1 a year).

Wartime Vocational Training (Committee on Education, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Washington. Free), a report made in collaboration with the Conference Committee of the American Association of School Administrators, presents a series of recommendations to schools, industry, and government concerning vocational training for young people.

Source material for the study of Nazi Germany is provided by a 510-page publication of the State Department, entitled *National Socialism* (Washington: Superintendent of Documents. Order No. S1.2:Sol. \$1.00).

Canada

An interesting booklet for any teacher or general reader concerned with the ideals and points of view of our allies is *Canada: The War and After*, by W. E. C. Harrison, Neil M. Morrison, R. G. Anglin, J. F. Parkinson, and Paul M. Limbert (Toronto: Ryerson, 60 cents). It has been issued by the Young Men's Committee of the National Council of YMCA's in Canada. The booklet is divided into four main parts: The Issues at Stake, Canada's War Effort, Problems in Post-War Canada, and The Special Obligations of a Christian in a World at War. The

booklet is intended to serve as a study guide for adult classes and discussion groups, and the inclusion of questions and bibliographies makes it especially useful for this purpose.

Another worthwhile pamphlet on Canada today is the March 15 issue of *The Booklist*, entitled "Canada at War," and prepared by Elizabeth W. Loosely and Norma Bennett of the Toronto Public Libraries (American Library Association, 520 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago. 25 cents). An excellent brief bibliographic description of available sources of information about wartime Canada is followed by a list of materials, noting publishers and prices. Both governments and private publications are included, and the list should be invaluable to any student or teacher interested in Canadian research or the accumulation of source material on modern Canada.

Post-War Problems

The Problem of Economic Peace after the War (Washington: Superintendent of Documents. 5 cents) is a reprint of a speech made by Leo Pasvolosky, Special Assistant to the Secretary of State. It analyzes the nature and extent of the probable economic problems which will arise after the war, and suggests some steps which are already being taken to cope with them.

Another useful addition to the ever-growing literature on reconstruction is *Wartime Facts and Postwar Problems*, edited by Evans Clark (Twentieth Century Fund, 330 West 42nd Street, New York. 50 cents). This is a discussion manual based on pre-war and present conditions, as well as future problems, in eleven fields of activity, including industry and business, education, labor, housing, health, etc. It should provide a handy basis for advanced classes and study groups.

A Variety of Government Publications

The National Resources Planning Board has issued a 134-page booklet entitled *State Planning: June 1942* (Washington: Superintendent of Documents. 30 cents). It contains statements of the work being carried on by the planning boards of all the states, and summaries of the history, organization, and activities of all conservation and wildlife bureaus.

A recent addition to the illustrated pamphlets issued by the National Park Service is one on Fort Raleigh, giving the history of the fort and

of Roanoke Island (Superintendent of Documents, Washington. Order No. I 29.21: F77r/2/942. 10 cents).

Reciprocal trade agreements with foreign nations have been one of the features of Cordell Hull's administration in the State Department. The Department has now issued a little pamphlet entitled *The Reciprocal-Trade-Agreements Program in War and Peace* (Superintendent of Documents, Washington: 10 cents), which describes the nature, purposes, results of the program, and its value in economic reconstruction.

Many people have heard of the National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel without actually knowing much about it or how it operates. The National Resources Planning Board has a pamphlet explaining this forward step in the mobilization of skilled manpower. It is entitled *National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel, June, 1942* (Washington: Superintendent of Documents. 10 cents).

Miscellaneous

Coercion of States: In Federal Unions, by Harrop Freeman and Theodore Paullin (Pacific Research Bureau, 1201 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia. 25 cents) is an historical study of unity in federal forms of government, particularly where physical force has been involved.

Publicity Program for the Local Historical Society, by J. M. Stroup (American Association for State and Local History, Box 6101, Washington. 35 cents) suggests ways in which local historical groups can bring their purposes and aims before the community.

The March-April issue of *American Unity* (The Council Against Intolerance in America, 17 East 42nd Street, New York) is entirely devoted to studies of Thomas Jefferson. It includes a variety of items intended to help teachers make Jefferson a real figure to their pupils. Copies have been sent to all junior and senior high schools, and many elementary schools.

The National Opinion Research Center, University of Denver, has published a map of the world distorted to show the areas of each country as though they were proportional to population. It should be useful to social studies teachers, since it will undoubtedly arouse pupils' curiosity and interest. It is particularly valuable in stressing graphically the vast population preponderance of the Orient. Copies of the map may be secured for 25 cents, and larger copies 22 × 24 inches, suitable for framing, cost one dollar.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Motion Picture News

The Paramount film *Night Plane from Chungking* is declared noteworthy by the East and West Association for the obvious effort taken by the producers to be authentic. Although not an attempt to portray modern China, the story does emphasize the importance of even one transport plane in China's struggle for victory.

Advance reports indicate that the Warner Brothers film, *Mission to Moscow*, based on former Ambassador Davies' book, is superlative. Ambassador Davies himself delivers the prologue. Walter Huston plays Davies.

Other pictures currently shown on the nation's screen which are worth seeing include *Air Force*, the story of a bomber; *The Ox-Bow Incident*, after the book by the same name, concerning a miscarriage of posse justice; *This Land is Mine*, in which a schoolmaster in occupied Europe teaches the rights of man in spite of the Nazis; *The Human Comedy*, an exceptional story of life in an average American city.

A valuable list of films and posters for use in classes considering the present conflict is contained in the pamphlet *Understanding the War* obtainable free from the Federal Education War Council, Office of War Information, Washington.

The United Nations Information Office, 610 Fifth Avenue, New York, will send interested teachers copies of their semi-monthly bulletin entitled *The War and Films*.

The *Free Film Source Directory*, available from the De Vry Corporation, 1111 Armitage Avenue, Chicago, for 50 cents, lists some 1300 films, classified as to subject.

Recent 16-mm. Releases

Brandon Films, 1600 Broadway, New York.

This Is the Enemy. 1 reel, sound, rental: apply. The embattled people of conquered areas: Yugoslavia, Poland, Ukraine.

In The Rear of the Enemy. 1 reel, sound, rental: apply. Story of the Russian guerrillas and the Red Army in action.

Castle Films Inc., RCA Building, New York.

West Point, Symbol of Our Army. 1 reel, sale price: silent \$8.75; sound \$17.50. The training of cadets in war-

time. Stresses relationship between classroom studies in war and actual practice.

Walter O. Gutlohn Inc., 25 West 45th Street, New York.

Trans-America. 1 reel, sound, rental: apply. Across the continent by plane. Panorama of the industrial East, farm areas, and the West Coast.

Office of War Information, Washington, D.C. (Order from your nearest film library.)

Japanese Relocation. 1 reel, sound, service fee: 50 cents. How the War Relocation Authority handled the mass movement of Pacific Coast Japanese to areas in Arizona, Colorado, Utah, and Wyoming.

The World at War. 5 reels, sound, service fee: \$2.50. History of the war from the invasion of Manchuria in 1931 to the bombing of Pearl Harbor. Your reviewer recently used this film in a sixth-grade class studying this war and in a college class also engaged in a study of the war. It was found profitable with both groups, but better suited to the adult audience. The stark realism of death which characterizes many of the scenes is strong medicine for the elementary-school pupil.

Radio Notes

If your social studies classes are preparing radio scripts for local or school broadcasts, they will be interested in the Office of War Information booklet, "When Radio Writes for War." One of the points made in this booklet may well be applied to the study of the current crisis. Do not, states the bulletin, "confuse the German and Japanese people with the 'Japanese militarist' or 'German Nazis.' They have been misled by despotic rulers, by lies, by false premises based on false premises, and when those among them who have brought this trouble on the world are eradicated, the people themselves must be permitted to know the fuller, better life that is our aim for the whole world."

The Comprehensive Radio Workshop, offered by the Radio Council of the Chicago Public Schools, is a summer course for teachers. Classes meet daily, June 28 to August 6. Further information may be obtained from George Jennings, Radio Council, 228 N. LaSalle Street, Chicago.

Pictures and Slides

Portraits of the Court of China, by Alan Priest (New York: Metropolitan Museum of Art. 50

cents) contains 22 plates and 7 pages of text describing the lives of the emperors and ladies of China.

A series of 2 x 2-inch full-color kodachrome slides on "Historical Philadelphia" has recently been put on the market by Klein and Goodman, 18 South Tenth Street, Philadelphia. Scenes include Independence Hall, the Declaration Chamber, Liberty Bell, Betsy Ross House, Carpenter Hall and others. At 50 cents each these slides bring to the classroom a realism which will be especially welcomed by teachers of United States history.

Maps

An interesting development in the field of pictorial cartography is a series of "Picture Maps of the South American Countries" produced by the Milton Bradley Company, Springfield, Massachusetts. The pictorial arrangement shows at a glance varied industries and resources. The size of these maps, 12 x 18 inches, makes them suitable for individual reference and bulletin-board use rather than for class presentation. There are 12 plates in the set, 11 maps and a descriptive text giving the area, capital, population, development, and characteristics of each country. Price, per set, 60 cents postpaid.

A centrifugal map centered about the North Pole makes it possible to determine with considerable accuracy air flight routes and air-line distances. Such a map has been designed by George T. Renner of Teachers College, Columbia University, for Rand McNally and Company. The World Map for the Air Age is a wall map, 48 x 42 inches in size, retailing for \$6.00. A student outline map, 11 x 11 inches, is available based upon the Air Age Map.

C. S. Hammond and Company, 90 Lexington Avenue, New York, will send free a reduced 11 x 17-inch facsimile of their Global Map for the Air Age. The Hammond Company has also inaugurated a policy of issuing with each of their wartime maps a correction coupon good for any post-war changes which need to be made on the maps. Notable among the recent maps issued by the company is a series of 16 wall-size maps (43 x 29 inches) bound in a large atlas from which they may be removed for side-by-side study. The low price of this series, 16 maps for \$12.50, will appeal to teachers working on wartime budgets. One of the most attractive maps to come to our attention in a long time is the "Voyage and Discovery" map published last month by Infor-

mative Classroom Pictures Publishers, Grand Rapids, Michigan. A semi-elliptical map of the world, 35 x 22½ inches in size, appears in silhouette against a white background. Around the border of the map are small pen-and-ink sketches depicting famous voyages of exploration from Columbus to Roy Chapman Andrews. Each illustration is keyed to a number on the map showing the route of the voyage. The map is printed on heavy Brightwell stock and sells for \$1.00.

An excellent aid to an understanding of the new map projections and the impact of the airplane upon our ideas of geography is a 32-page booklet, "Maps and How to Understand Them" obtainable free from Consolidated Vultee Aircraft Corporation, Box 157, New York. Written simply enough to be understood by intermediate-grade pupils, this booklet tells about the various projections and their uses, gives interesting comparisons, projection tables, and a geography quiz. Quantity requests for class use are welcomed.

Phonograph Records

The U. S. Library of Congress, Reference Department, Division of Music, Washington, has published a "Catalogue of Phonograph Records; Selected Titles from the Archives of American Folk Song." This 18-page booklet lists seven albums, containing 119 titles, available for purchase by schools, libraries, and other agencies. Prices of records are given, with a brief description of the recording. A descriptive folder accompanies each record.

The Recordings Division of the American Council on Education has been added to the New York University Film Library, Washington Square, New York, to make available to schools and colleges recordings of educational broadcasts, historic addresses, and literary readings.

Helpful Articles

Gale, Ann. "The Air Age—In Hand-Made Lantern Slides," *Educational Screen*, XXII:101, March, 1943. Sketches to be traced on etched glass showing the effect of the airplane upon our map and our ways of doing things.

Greene, Wesley. "The Wartime Use of Films in Canada," *Educational Screen*, XXII:86-88, 93, March, 1943. Special consideration is given to the use of 16-mm. films in schools and with community groups.

Hartley, William H. "Illustrative Material for Conservation Education. V. Maps," *Journal of Geography*, LXII:108-111, March, 1943. A list of map sources with titles, description, and prices.

Book Reviews

THE OTHER SIDE OF MAIN STREET: A HISTORY TEACHER FROM SAUK CENTER. By Henry Johnson. New York: Columbia University Press, 1943. Pp. viii, 263. \$2.75.

Most readers of this autobiography will probably claim it as a contribution to American literature. Indeed, one of my friends who read it—I have had a good deal of trouble keeping it long enough to finish this review—remarked, on returning it, that, to his mind, it fills a big gap in the picture of the American scene. That, I think, is true; for it treats of an aspect of American life which is naturally left untouched in *The Education of Henry Adams*, the *Letters of Thomas Jefferson*, *Home on the River*, *Lanterns on the Levee*, and in the *Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin*. That is, though less philosophical than some of these memoirs, it supplements such recollections by others drawn out of the Middle West; and it also supplies that mature and seasoned point of view which Hamlin Garland was never able to bring to bear on his memories. In addition, it spans, with a wealth of concrete detail, an epitome of American history from the Indian frontier to the hectic, hurrying, crowded, sophisticated, cosmopolitan conglomeration that is New York City of the present day.

The account divides itself into two parts. The first is that of the formative period in which the growing youth is subjected to a variety of influences and opportunities destined to shape his career. The second deals with the period after his destiny is shaped, his career definitely established. For Henry Johnson the point of division may be set either in 1899 or 1906 when he emerged from his local environment to become a national figure. Paradoxically, the first period, local though it be, will be found of universal interest, whereas the second, though of national and international significance, will probably interest chiefly the more limited educational world. Both parts, however, will be of equal interest to all teachers of history.

The first part, covering the period of the author's youth, portrays also the saga of America, the vista of endless opportunity, limited only by the ability of the individual to make the most of it. Indian scout, hunter, trapper, craftsman, farmer, teacher, business man, pharmacist, doctor, lawyer, banker, journalist, school adminis-

trator, politician, college professor, statesman—any of these young Henry Johnson might have become. Indeed, even as late as 1899 it was by no means certain that he might not revert to politics or journalism or school administration, even to pharmacy or medicine, at all of which he had tried his hand. Carefully chosen experiences, simply but vividly told, cause the reader to share in the problem of discovering the writer's ultimate career; and up to nearly 1906 he is as uncertain as the author as to what the answer may be.

It would be hard to find anywhere, within the same amount of space, so vivid, clear, and complete an account of life on the Northwest frontier as is provided in this story of Henry Johnson's formative years. The author's use of concrete illustration to suggest large patterns of fact is well displayed in this book, together with his gift of transferring to the reader the emotions connected with the experiences related. But these emotional elements are nowhere overstressed, as is well illustrated in his treatment of an incident of his boyhood when he was caught out in a blinding blizzard. For though he reached home only after much difficulty (he gives credit to the horses), yet when he comes to describe that experience, he mentions merely his surprised delight in having his whole family wait on him. The reader, however, will readily supply what he omits.

The same delicate restraint appears in the author's judgment on the operation of human nature as revealed in that frontier community. He saw the drugstore selling more liquor than the corner saloon and the druggist respecting the discriminating taste of his patrons by pouring the same whiskey into different containers, from which it was dispensed at correspondingly different prices. He saw a high-minded clergyman unwittingly serving the baser elements of a community and a saloon-keeper leading the fight for reform. The range of his experience included acquaintance with a banker so grasping and unscrupulous that he cheated his own family. But he also knew another banker who could be counted upon to support nearly every worthy cause that came to his attention. All these and many other pictures are drawn without moralizing.

In a way, the title, which I suspect the pub-

THE ORIGINS and BACKGROUND of the SECOND WORLD WAR

By C. GROVE HAINES, *Syracuse University*
and ROSS J. S. HOFFMAN, *Fordham University*

The first work of mature historical scholarship to set forth the full global background of the war, to explore the roots of the world crisis through the past one hundred years, and to show that crisis against the broad perspective of modern history.

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114 Fifth Avenue, New York



lishers selected, is misleading, since the author is portraying, or rather permitting to be portrayed, not only the other side of Main Street, but both sides. Sauk Centre, which produced both Sinclair Lewis and Henry Johnson within a single generation, afforded much that was noble as well as the opposite, and it taught Johnson, to whom both were quite fully apparent, the understanding of life as few people ever do understand it. And that understanding he has succeeded in imparting to his readers with poised judgment and kindly humor.

By 1906, after his interview with the "Old Dean," James E. Russell, his career was definitely determined and his locale transferred to the national and international scene of New York City. True, his education still continued, as, in a sense, it was to continue throughout his life, but the story now takes a different turn. Certain figures, familiar to the educational and academic world begin to appear—for instance James Harvey Robinson, W. A. Dunning, John Dewey, David Eugene Smith, as well as the "Old" Dean. There are also a number of interesting incidents nearly all connected with education. But the reader, aware of the many tensions in the de-

velopment of the school curriculum of social studies during this period, senses the operation of inhibitions. This part of the story is not so complete, not nearly so comprehensive of the whole range of the author's experiences, as is the first part. Perhaps it is too early to publish that account, but I hope that Professor Johnson has written it for later publication.

Teachers of history, however, will find considerable compensation for the lack of the full recital of these later years in the added space which the author of this volume is thus able to devote to his experiences in the art of teaching. With a wealth of illustration, he reveals his conviction that the true secret of successful instruction consists in bringing any selected topic within the range of the pupil's experience. As one illustration of how this may be accomplished, he reports on a device which he has successfully employed in helping school children in New York City to picture Manhattan Island as the wooded, rocky island that it was before the white man came. In the same way, he describes an exercise (or is it "activity"?) by means of which children in the elementary grades may be led to appreciate the more intangible idea of historical criticism.

But in addition to these illustrations there are many others which will suggest to any conscientious teacher how best to lead children in the lower grades to a realistic comprehension of the facts of history.

As I read over all the various suggestions the author provides for dealing with a range of teaching problems, I almost forgot the debate which I have been carrying on with him, now for a good many years. That is, his point of view on the teaching of history carries with it certain implications with which I have sometimes quarreled. The first is that any problem in history can be brought within the experience of pupils of almost any age; and the second is that any teacher can accomplish this feat.

On these points, I have been unable to agree with Professor Johnson; for certain problems, it seems to me, involve an emotional maturity which young children can scarcely be expected to possess. Others involve a complexity which is not to be comprehended by even the clearest grasp of their component parts. That fuller understanding, I have thought, can only be expected of those old enough and wise enough to appreciate that intricate relationship between the various parts by which they become a collective whole. As for the ability of any or every teacher to bring any problem of history within the experience of his pupils, the annual parade of newly certified teachers across the college platform always leaves me with serious doubts. How many of them, I often wonder, will be resourceful enough to meet unexpected difficulties in the classroom with some such exercises as Professor Johnson has suggested in the pages of this book? How many of them have had much personal experience beyond the classroom to fall back upon? How many possess the capacity—not unrelated to that of the creative artist—to imagine experiences through which they have not themselves passed? All these questions and reservations I have often discussed with the author of this book.

And yet, as I have watched him teaching young pupils, college students, and even college professors, it has often seemed to me that he was actually carrying out his own dictum, without qualification. More than that, as I have watched some of his former students teaching in elementary grades or secondary schools, I have been forced to admit that they were very nearly approaching the measure of his mark of excellence.

This autobiography helps to explain the reason for any such record of success. That is, since its

author had undergone nearly every type of social experience before he graduated from high school and college, he was able thereafter to draw on a rich storehouse of memory whenever he encountered new difficulties in his classrooms. But more than that, he has mastered, as few have, the art of sharing his experiences with his auditors of whatever age. And nowhere has he displayed that art more effectively than in this book, which every teacher of history and the related social studies will want to recommend not only to his or her adult friends but to pupils in American history as well.

It is also one that every teacher will want to own, for interesting and fascinating as it is at first reading, it will continue to be so at each successive review. I say this because, though I was familiar with much of the story before I opened the book, I have read the whole at least five times and parts more often. And each time I have come upon some point which I had previously missed.

A. C. KREY

University of Minnesota

THE AGE OF BUSINESS ENTERPRISE, A SOCIAL HISTORY OF INDUSTRIAL AMERICA. By Thomas C. Cochran and William Miller. New York: Macmillan, 1942. Pp. x, 394. \$3.50.

Believe it or not, Richard Croker, erstwhile sarchem of Tammany Hall, provides the text for this volume: "Ever heard that business is business? Well, so is politics business, and reporting—journalism, doctoring—all professions, arts, sports—everything is business." Since "everything is business," what is business? At the outset we are told it is not identical with the "profit motive," an error "naively" made by some historians; some sixty pages later a contrast between "industry" and "business" announces that the latter is "concerned with the making of profits"; and finally the assertion is quoted with approval that men are in business when they "make a living chiefly out of providing goods and services for exchange with others," a statement which, if unqualified, would seem to be broad enough to cover the activities of chiropractors and college professors. However wavering their definition may be, Cochran and Miller in practice identify business with most economic activity performed in the United States after 1800. Over half their volume is devoted to economic history, so conceived as to include industry, transportation, commerce, finance, agriculture and labor.

Focusing on America

Recent Events in the Development of America

by Fremont P. Wirth

The 1943 edition of this annual pamphlet presents history from 1939 down to date. The discussion covers all phases of American life during the period and is invaluable in bringing up to the minute any course in American History. A map and a table showing the population and voting strength of the forty-eight states, based on the 1940 census, is included.

The pamphlet can be used as a separate unit or in conjunction with any good textbook. It supplements perfectly Wirth's *Development of America* and is furnished free of charge to every user of that text. 24 pages. 12¢

Across the Ages The Story of Man's Progress

by Louise I. Capen

This stimulating approach to world history not only brings new meaning to the subject but lays a firm foundation for the study of American History. Each of the eighteen units develops from past to present, with America as the ultimate focal point. The text impresses students with the importance of knowing the worthwhile achievements of mankind in order that they, as *Americans*, may appreciate their inheritances and thereby be encouraged to accept willingly their own duties of good citizenship. 896 pp. \$2.40

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The treatment of these conventional subjects is refreshingly uncluttered with meaningless detail and focussed upon main tendencies and developments. There is a heartening freedom from historical clichés and partisan theses. They have abandoned the widely held notion that the Civil War was a struggle between the "lords of the lash" and the "lords of the loom" and that big business and the international bankers were the creators of American imperialism in the twentieth century. If my eyes are not deceived, they have written a chapter on industry and labor since the Civil War without employing the word "exploitation," a major achievement. Finally they escape the thralldom of the Turner frontier hypothesis and treat the relationships between East and West in the light of common sense rather than formula. Stylistically, the whole narrative is vigorous, swift-paced, and enlivened with apt quotations. Only occasionally does its momentum lead to statements more neat from the literary point of view than sound in fact. For instance, the disgracefully high figures of industrial and railroad accidents cannot be explained merely by bankers' carelessness; indeed it was often the largest concerns, those under bankers' control, that had the means to finance

the safety movements and did. It was the small concerns that took chances.

With business and its development out of the way, the Croker formula is applied to the social features of American life. Here the treatment of the impact of business upon politics and upon city life is comparatively full; upon education, religion, literature and the fine arts, other than architecture, merely cursory. Although limitations of space may account for these differences of emphasis, perhaps a more valid explanation is the refusal of these phenomena to accord with the authors' assumptions. Certainly no one would deny that a business civilization has influenced American culture, the real question is the extent and the intensity of that influence in comparison with others. Is, for instance, the position of women in American life due to the fact they entered factories or had leisure because their husbands earned money as business men, or is it due to science shattering the biology of the Old Testament, psychology proving women have brains as good as men, or to the conviction of the Declaration of Independence that "all men are created equal"? Even in a predominantly economic topic, Cochran and Miller are driven to admit that the "real crux of the failure of man-

agement and labor to reach a generally satisfactory relationship" is in part because "the native American worker was educated in the schools and in his political and social life to think in terms of democracy." Not only do the various phases of our culture, as in all cultures, have a structure or a life of their own, but also these cultural phases are too subtly interpenetrated to justify the assumption that business shapes our American social life and that American political or social life does not also shape business.

Those who do not accept the business thesis here advanced will certainly wish to enter a demurrer to Cochran's and Miller's early assertion "We have not been a people essentially political, literary, metaphysical, or religious." Such a statement clearly ignores or contradicts a mountain of evidence. As for religion, observers as far apart in ability and time as De Toqueville and Count Keyserling have pointed out that the Americans were a strikingly religious people. Moreover, in the nineteenth century, it was Americans who founded three of its important religions, Mormonism, Millerism, and Christian Science. Meanwhile in the field of politics Americans successfully worked the largest Federal system in the world, introduced a measure of democracy decades before any country in Western Europe, devised a highly creditable system of colonization, and developed the doctrine of judicial review. Later they were in Woodrow Wilson to furnish the outstanding prophet and formulator of international organization. Perhaps Cochran and Miller discount such religious or political activities since they were influenced by business. If that is their case, it would be interesting to discover any modern western nation distinguished for "pure" politics or "pure" religion, or for a "pure" literature or metaphysics, for that matter.

EDWARD C. KIRKLAND

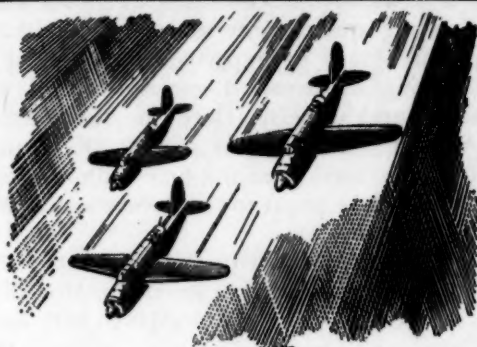
Bowdoin College

DEEP SOUTH. A SOCIAL ANTHROPOLOGICAL STUDY OF CASTE AND CLASS. By Allison Davis, Burleigh B. Gardner, and Mary R. Gardner. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941. Pp. xv, 558. \$4.50.

The authors of this monograph have made a most significant addition to the growing list of studies of society in the cotton South. To the familiar sociological technique of field investigation, conducted in this instance by a white and a Negro field worker and their wives in the

decadent Mississippi blackbelt below Vicksburg, they have added the objective analysis of the social anthropologist. Their findings make a distinct contribution to our understanding of urban and rural society in the old plantation areas of the southeast. Irrefutable evidence is presented of the existence of a system of color castes which stems from the reconstruction of the South by southern men in the seventies of the last century after the carpetbaggers had fled. By means of it the so-called Negro population of the South was consigned to inferior status in every walk of life and eventually deprived of political existence as well. Although the intervening decades have depressed some white groups and elevated professional and propertied Negroes above them economically, the inferior caste status of the ex-slaves and their descendants is still preserved with most of the discriminations, prejudices, and restricted social and occupational opportunities that such a term implies. That this is a *social*, not a *racial* situation, is fully established by an elaborate analysis of the behavior and mores of the white and colored populations and a study of the racial composition of the Negroes.

Supplementing this caste system, which prevails throughout the South, is a hierarchy of classes within each color group. Based on family ties and differences in economic, occupational, and educational status, with emphasis upon varying degrees of color within the Negro caste, it modifies the caste system at top and bottom. The upper white and colored classes combine to perpetuate the caste system although they ignore some of its restrictions in dealing with each other. At bottom the acceptance of "Nigger work" by large numbers of whites since 1929 has blurred caste distinctions in actual practice while it intensifies the determination of the lower class whites to preserve the caste system in full vigor. The day by day operation of the dual system of castes and classes is fully described with reference to data that will be recognized as typical of social relations throughout the entire southeastern cotton and tobacco belts. Equally valuable is the study of the relation of the plantation and urban economies to the prevailing castes and classes. Finally, the authors project an analysis of the local government against the same pattern, which distorts the machinery of democracy by creating a ruling oligarchy at the top and a helpless, disfranchised, and underprivileged colored mass at the bottom. The entire work is the best treatise on the subject of southern society that has come to the reviewer's attention. It should be on the



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"must" list of all "damnyankees" moving South, of liberal editors, and of teachers of the social studies who would understand the deep South and its views on social and "racial" policy.

CHESTER McARTHUR DESTLER

Connecticut College

BASIC SOCIAL EDUCATION SERIES. Evanston: Row Peterson, 1941-42. 32¢ each.

America's Oil. By Russell W. Cumley. Pp. 36.

Soil, Water, and Man. By Murl Deusing. Pp. 47.

America's Minerals. By Katherine Glover. Pp. 48.

Our American Forests: Yesterday, Today, Tomorrow. By Katherine Glover. Pp. 48.

Our Inland Seas: The Great Lakes. By Janet Hull Zimmerman and Frank F. Bright. Pp. 48.

The Motor Car in American Life. By Curtis Fuller. Pp. 48.

This series is an attempt to bring together much of the educational material for social studies that has been available heretofore only in pamphlet or clipping form. The books are small, compact, and very attractive. Under fifty pages

in length, they are packed with pertinent facts, figures, charts, maps, and graphs. The sources of information are government and industrial pamphlets, museum and library illustrations and displays, laboratory findings, photographs, and newspaper copy. Thus the materials are authentic and up to date.

The books were written by different authors but all seem to have written with the same basic philosophy of education in mind—that attitudes and emotional reactions are as important as knowledge. Thus there is a skillful blending of civic-education objectives with useful subject matter. For example, any child reading the book on *Our American Forests* is left with this summary of the subject: "In the future everybody must help to save our forests. As the benefits of the trees are shared by all, the responsibility belongs to all."

The reading matter of these books is not easy, and at no time are children talked down to. The material is excellent for junior or even senior high school classes. Yet the arrangement of the book is such that even a rather poor reader can browse and find the answers to pertinent questions as well as many challenging thoughts. The good readers of the upper-elementary grades will

find enjoyment in these well-planned books.

These books were given to a group of fifth- and sixth-grade children of average, or above, intelligence and opportunity. They seemed very much interested in every book of the series, although after a long period of examination they chose three favorites: *Our American Forests*, *American Minerals*, and *Soil, Water, and Man*. This surprised me as I had felt sure that they would choose *America's Oil*, and *The Motor Car*. When asked what they liked about each of these books they summarized the matter thus: "It tells you about things you can't find out about in regular books."

It seems that a series of this sort has been long overdue in social education and that it can have many additions to it before it has fully met the need.

KATHRYN SCHNORRENBERG

State Teachers College
Towson, Maryland

ADVENTURES IN AMERICA. Pp. vi, 262, and
OUR AMERICAN COLONIES. By Ira Morris Gast.
Philadelphia: Davis, 1942. Pp. vi, 427. \$1.44
each.

Adventures in America is the "first of a series in the elementary social science program." It treats the European background to American history beginning with the Great Awakening and ending with the efforts of Sir Walter Raleigh to establish an English colony in America. The author lists ten objectives in the foreword which the text is intended to accomplish. Two of these have to do with the encouragement of an interest and facility in reading natural science. The text is to be used in the fourth grade.

Our American Colonies, written for the fifth grade, "is intended to form a sound basis for the study of our early national period." It carries the story of American history from Jamestown through the War for Independence. The objective to stimulate interest in natural science is repeated in this volume. To it is added the goal of stimulating a desire for more healthful living. Although these goals represent relatively new departures, the actual treatment of content does not indicate that they have been fully carried out.

Both volumes stress social, economic, and political changes of the periods covered. The social treatment is admirably done. The treatment of the economic and political changes seems much too advanced in spots for the levels for which

the texts are intended. This raises the long-standing question as to how far middle-grade children may be expected to go in the understanding of involved economics and political terms and patterns. Dates are used extensively. And time designations such as "B.C." and "century" are used from the first without attempting to orient the pupil to the nature and significance of time elements.

The organization of the text material follows the traditional pattern for this period of American history. The treatment is full and well-balanced. The style is commanding. Frequent references to the pupil serve to keep the content at close range. On the whole the treatment is refreshing and authentic. Unit organization is employed. The units are broken down into chapters each of which is opened with a clear outline. At the close of each unit stimulating study exercises, tests, and readings are listed. The texts break from tradition in respect to the illustrations used. These include reproduced paintings and photographs in subdued and harmonious colors, pen sketches, and picture maps. Their selection and execution reflect originality. The full legends are informative and stimulating.

These texts, together with a third one bringing the story down to the present, will provide a full course in American history for the middle grades.

R. W. CORDIER

State Teachers College
Clarion, Pennsylvania

YOUTH IN THE CCC. By Kenneth Holland and Frank Ernest Hill. Washington: American Council on Education, 1942. Pp. xv, 263. \$2.25.

Behind this constructively critical book lies information gathered in a five-year study sponsored by the American Youth Commission. It represents the work of many more individuals than the two who are listed as authors. Over two hundred different men and women participated in the extensive studies. A single small volume cannot deal exhaustively with the many activities of the American Youth Commission's study of the Civilian Conservation Corps nor can it contain much of the detailed evidence which was accumulated. It is an appraisal "not for the specialist in educational techniques, but for workers with youth, for the large body of educators, and for the socially minded general reader."

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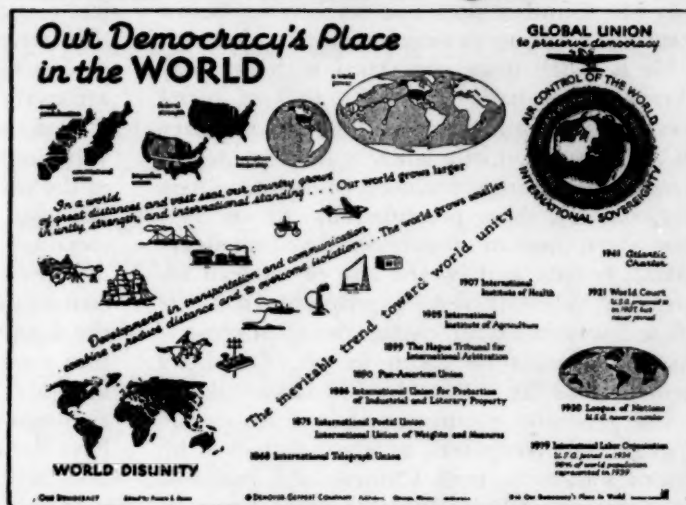


Chart D16—Our Democracy's Place in the World

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EDITH F. ERICKSON

Collinwood High School
Cleveland, Ohio

INSIDE ASIA. By John Gunther. Edited for school use by G. E. McReynolds. New York: Harper, 1942. Pp. x, 575. \$1.96.

War in the Pacific is revealing to educators the inadequacy of a course of study which leaves its students almost completely ignorant of the affairs of one half of humanity. Materials on Oriental countries are badly needed to correct this unbalance in our school and college curricula. Hence this edition of John Gunther's well-known book, abridged for school use by G. E. McReynolds, is to be welcomed. Little of importance is missing except the section on the Near East, which is omitted entirely. Several pages of teaching aids have been added; there are six maps and a brief bibliography.

For school use, Mr. Gunther's extraordinary treasurehouse of assorted knowledge has many assets. In no other book can be found such a comprehensive, colorful, and up-to-date introduction to Asia. The book is rich in factual information; it is usually accurate (though not always); it is remarkably objective and generally sensible in its treatment of controversial themes. It can be highly recommended, provided the teacher keeps in mind that it is an introduction and not the last word on the subject. For proper

balance and perspective, this book should be supplemented by other reading.

For Mr. Gunther does not get very far below the surface of events as seen by a foreign journalist. He is much more concerned with the play of vivid personalities than with that of social forces, or with the lives and thoughts of ordinary men and women. Little stress is laid on two of the most fundamental problems confronting Asia today, namely, those presented by the survival into modern times of an oppressive and medieval agrarian system, and by the rise of modern industrialism. Nevertheless, if properly used this book will serve a valuable educational purpose.

Exception must be taken to Mr. Gunther's statement that "at present by and large Asiatics are less generally competent than Europeans." On might ask, competent at what? But even by Western standards, both Chinese and Japanese have demonstrated considerable competence in the crucial art of war. Fortunately this patronizing note is relatively infrequent in Mr. Gunther's writing.

MIRIAM S. FARLEY

American Council
Institute of Pacific Relations
New York

FAR EAST SERIES. Edited by Maxwell Stewart.
New York: Institute of Pacific Relations, and
St. Louis: Webster Publishing Company, 1942-
43. Pp. 94. 40¢ each.

Land of the Soviets. By Marguerite Ann Stewart.

Changing China. By George E. Taylor.

Peoples of the China Seas. By Elizabeth Allerton Clark.

Modern Japan. By William Henry Chamberlin.

These are not books about the war. The subject matter is both historical and current. Reading them will contribute to an understanding of what the war in the Far East is about and will give some insight into the imperatives of the future for that area of the world. Although especially intended for consumption by high school students, the series may be read with profit by any adult, including most teachers. Each of the volumes has the proper scholarliness, but each is also marked by human approach and lack of pedantry. Authenticity is pretty well guaranteed by the fact that the project is a cooperative one between the publisher and the American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations. There is

no attempt either to glorify or to muckrake any of the peoples of the Far East. Quality and subject matter, attractive format, and low cost make this series suitable equipment for any social studies classroom, especially at a time when we are aware that we have long neglected the Orient.

Perhaps of greatest immediate interest is the volume on Russia. There is a good description of the soviet (council) and of its place in Russian life even before the Revolution. The theory of socialism is competently and objectively treated as a prelude to presenting the workings and accomplishments of the Communist regime, and the reader is enabled to discover how naturally that regime grew out of the old czarist Russia. Happily, no attempt is made to determine the rightness or wrongness of what the Communists have done in Russia. The author neither attacks nor supports the Russian experiment, treats nothing in that land as strange or peculiar. The reader is helped to appreciate that Russians are people as well as Communists by a description of the persons, activities, and relationships of a city worker and his wife and by a résumé of the economic workings of the society in terms of what people do and have. The industrialization of the country and the collectivization of agriculture are described and analyzed at some length. Brief but clear pictures of the workings of the political state and of foreign policy and relations complete a well-rounded and authoritative handling of the land of the soviets.

Equally illuminating and thought stimulating are the volumes on China and Japan. The complexities of the Chinese economy and culture are for once made comprehensible, probably chiefly because they hold the center of the stage in place of ancestor worship and foot binding. While the account of Japanese history and current imperialism is somewhat inimical, the tone is moderate and has the ring of authority. From Mr. Chamberlin's telling one can at least gain some understanding of why the Japanese have embarked upon their imperial adventures, for he does not resort to the "devil" theory at all to explain what has happened.

Peoples of the China Seas includes not only the East Indies but the Malay Peninsula in its scope. While the welter of peoples who stream across the pages is quite as confusing as the geography of the area, the author manages to stick to a central theme which gives continuity to the multiplicity of histories and customs. She says: "Southeast Asia has been a battleground for imperial power for other reasons than its strategic

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position. It happens also to be one of the richest regions in the world in important natural resources. It has a climate in which things grow fast. It has a large and cheap supply." It is with these qualities and the impact of western imperialism upon them that she deals.

Each of the volumes is well furnished with photographic illustrations which actually illustrate the textual matter. There are some maps and charts. Pedagogical equipment is limited to questions and exercises designed to emphasize thought rather than memory. All names and technical terms have pronunciations indicated in the text. This reviewer has used the series in the high school classroom and can vouch for their readability and usefulness there.

WAYNE ALVORD

Community High School
 Pekin, Illinois

Publications Received

Bowman, David W. *Pathway of Progress: A Short History of Ohio*. New York: American Book, 1943. Pp. xvi, 546.

Downes, James E., Singer, Nathaniel H., and Becker, Donald. *Latin America and Hemisphere Solidarity*. Boston: Heath, 1943. Pp. vi, 237. \$1.40.

Flamm, Irving H. *An Economic Program for a Living Democracy*. New York: Liveright, 1942. Pp. xv, 342. \$3.00.

Holbrook, Sabra. *Children Object*. New York: Viking, 1943. Pp. 197. \$2.00.

Inman, Samuel Guy. *Latin America: Its Place in World Life*. New and enl. ed. New York: Harcourt Brace, 1942. Pp. viii, 466. \$3.75.

Kandel, I. L. *The Cult of Uncertainty*. New York: Macmillan, 1943. Pp. x, 129. \$1.50.

Langer, Walter C. *Psychology and Human Living*. New York: Appleton Century, 1943. Pp. vii, 286. \$1.50.

Lawrence, Chester H., Ed. *New World Horizons: Geography for the Air Age*. New York: Silver Burdett, 1943. Pp. 94. \$2.00.

Mort, Paul R. *Secondary Education as Public Policy*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1943. Pp. 85. \$1.00.

National Resources Planning Board. *National Resources Development. Report for 1942*. Washington: National Resources Planning Board, 1943. Pp. v, 81. 25c.

Shultz, Orlo M. *Using Tools*. Intermediate Grades. Gainesville: Florida Curriculum Laboratory, College of Education, University of Florida. Pp. 122.

Wellborn, Fred W. *The Growth of American Nationality, 1492-1865*. New York: Macmillan, 1943. Pp. xiii, 1042. \$3.50.

The New York Times "Test"

(Continued from page 200)

wittingly or not, the kind of legislative interference that characterized the years during, and after, the First World War, and against which the *Times* then threw the weight of its influence.

American schools during the past generation have had to adjust to a new school population, to new responsibilities, to new techniques as the science of education has steadily developed, and to a new world as the domestic and international scenes have changed rapidly. Experiments and adaptations have been necessary. Those made have been incomplete and imperfect. But in the social studies, as in some other fields, the schools have had leadership and financial support from such sources as the Carnegie Corporation, the Rockefeller Foundation, the General Education Board, and the College Entrance Examination Board, to name but a few. It has leadership from college and university professors and learned societies as well as from professors of education and professional educational associations. It has had increasingly earnest and well-prepared, and less increasingly well-paid, teachers. The armed forces have been paying tribute to the educational advances made during the past twenty-five years, and the response of young Americans to the war emergency would seem to speak well for the program of citizenship education that has been carried on—and to speak fully as loudly, one might think, as the results of the kind of test to which the *Times* has lent its name.

Yet the *Times*, at a critical moment, casually adopts a highly imperfect test, whose results can only be misleading, in a field on which wartime

emotions can play swiftly and powerfully, and it permits private, personal, and irresponsible interests to exploit what is presented as a national educational scandal. The *Times* could have had in advance, for the asking, the advice that it has since received, that tests limited to information always yield low scores, that the situation in American history is no worse than on other subjects, and that its test had little relation to a vital and defensible program of civic education.

WHAT NEEDS TO BE DONE?

WE NEED effective teaching of American history. As already indicated, that involves decisions as to what knowledge is basic to an understanding and appreciation of America. It involves articulation of the three cycles of American history now generally taught in the schools, so that learning is effective, and so that the second and third cycles are fresh and vital rather than repetitious and deadening. We need teaching materials for groups, like poor readers, that present special problems. We need social studies teachers with the means and the leisure to buy books and magazines, to read, to travel, to keep professionally alert. And we need the sympathy and support of the public—including the press—as we try to achieve what everybody wants: a body of young citizens informed about our past, conscious and informed about problems and issues in the present, devoted to our democratic traditions and ideals, and capable of participating in the advancement of those traditions and ideals now and in the future.

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"The State departments of education were asked if American history is required by law, by State school authorities, and what general practice obtains relative to grade placement and frequency of offering. The returns from this inquiry show that in 31 states American history is required by law to be taught in the elementary schools of the State and that in six additional States it is required by the chief education authorities. While there is no specific requirement as to the teaching of American history in the other States, the general authorizations and practices are such that all local school systems include it. With reference to the secondary schools, it is required by statute in 27 States, by the chief education authorities in 11 States, and is established by practice in all others.

"State departments were asked 'How many schools in your State do not offer American history in the elementary school.' Each of the 48 States replied 'None.' The question was also asked 'How many schools in your State do not offer American history in the secondary school?' Replies from 45 States answered 'None'; one stated that it would be 'None' after 1943-44; one excepted a few schools that consist of only two secondary grades; and a third State answered 'None except in one city.'"—*Education for Victory*, May, 1943.

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